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THE NEW ART OF WRITING AND SPEAKING
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Volume I

GRAMMAR

THE NEW ART
OF
WRITING AND SPEAKING
THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SHERWIN CODY



GRAMMAR

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS
NEW YORK AND LONDON

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FOREWORD

The standard of correct English usage has changed slowly but steadily since the opening of the twentieth century. In times past the educational world has felt a necessity for teaching and trying to maintain the formal literary standard, according to which many common colloquial expressions are condemned, either because they are illogical or at variance with philological facts or principles, or because they seem to grave educators as slightly vulgar by reason of their everyday informal use.

The Oxford Dictionary, however, which must now be accepted as our highest authority, recognizes at least two different levels of good use, namely the literary level and the good colloquial level—that is, the use of words as well-educated people employ them in talking and letter writing. More and more all writing has come to be colloquial. Preachers “talk” to their congregations, and lawyers “talk” to juries. Above all, business men have learned that letters which “pull” business must be engaging talk on paper. Newspapers have always been colloquial, and in times past the literary critics have sneered at “newspaper English,” but we hear little of such condemnation in these days. In the field of literature novels have always been colloquial, or full of the talk of the characters, sometimes in dialect, sometimes in slang, but always in everyday colloquial

English. And in these days even essays have lost their formal character and have become familiar little chats beside the evening fire. It is infinitely more important, therefore, to know what good colloquial usage is than what so-called formal literary usage ought to be. The ordinary person is no longer misled into supposing that his everyday speech should conform to the rules of literary standards—it would be very bad speech indeed if it did, because literary standards are as much out of place in daily conversation as full evening dress would be in the daytime.

This has now been recognized by the highest educational authorities. The writings of Dr. George Philip Krapp of Columbia University in recognition of our actual educated usages have been recognized by the editors of the Oxford Dictionary as about the highest authority we have on American good usage. The late Dr. Sterling A. Leonard was a student under Professor Krapp when he was taking his doctor's degree at Columbia, and later, when he was professor of the teaching of English at the University of Wisconsin and president of the National Council of Teachers of English, he had the interesting idea of finding out by direct investigation how a couple of hundred of the world's leading authorities on good English would classify some of our commonest expressions about which much discussion has raged. So he chose 100 expressions, illustrated in easy sentences or phrases, and referred them to 222 experts starting with a jury of 28 professional linguists like Prof. Otto Jespersen of the University of Copenhagen, H. W. Fowler, one of the editors

of the Oxford Dictionary, Dr. E. A. Cross of the Colorado State Teachers College, Dr. C. T. Onions of Oxford University, and Professor Krapp. Next came a jury of 22 authors, including such well known names as Booth Tarkington, Arnold Bennett, H. G. Wells, Mrs. Dorothy Canfield Fisher, Winston Churchill, Zona Gale, and Hamlin Garland, to mention only a few. His jury of 30 editors included H. L. Mencken, Dr. Frank Vizetelly editor of the Standard Dictionary, Dr. Henry S. Canby editor of the Saturday Review of Literature, William Allen White editor of the Emporia Gazette, and the editors of Scribner's, Harper's Magazine, J. B. Lippincott Co., the Oxford University Press, the Boston Herald, the Chicago Daily News, the Indianapolis News, the Kansas City Star, the University of California Press, and the Christian Science Monitor. There was also a jury of business men, a group from the National Council of Teachers of English, a group from the Modern Language Association, and a group from the Speech League. They were asked to classify the 100 expressions selected on the basis of whether they heard educated people using them (1) on the literary level, in formal speech or writing, (2) on the good colloquial level, in conversation and letter writing, or avoiding them as (3) on the illiterate level. Professor Leonard also had a classification of technical use, but this turned out of little value and was ignored. He also asked the British critics to indicate whether an expression was regarded as an Americanism. Later there was a questionnaire on punctuation sent out chiefly to editors, and an additional questionnaire on usage of 128 more expres-

sions, which was sent out only to the professional linguists and teachers.

The statistics thus gathered have been published since Professor Leonard's death by the National Council of Teachers of English, and are full of extremely interesting information if you know how to dig it out from the tangle of "standard deviations," "critical ratios," and whatnot. If seventy-five per cent of the judges classified an expression as good usage under either the first or second classification Professor Leonard was willing to accept it. If the same percentage classified it in the third category of illiterate usage he was willing to reject it. If the vote lay in the neighborhood of fifty-fifty he confessed that usage was divided and it yet remained to determine whether to accept or reject the expression; or we might say, it yet remained to determine under what circumstances and conditions the expression might be used without criticism, or under what circumstances it would be condemned.

The colloquial standard was recognized in the edition of this book published in 1903, but the investigation referred to above has helped to make the treatment of each expression more surely and definitely in conformance to the consensus of these highest authorities, which have been studied with utmost care and whose definite decisions have been generally accepted.

In addition experience has etched deeply the art of effectively "using words so as to make people do things." There is a vital difference between imagining what that art ought to be, and after success recording how it actually was achieved.

The New Art of Writing and Speaking the English Language

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

If there is a subject of really universal interest and utility, it is the art of writing and speaking one's own language effectively. It is the basis of culture, as we all know; but it is infinitely more than that: it is the key to all human relationship, the medium through which alone we can make people pay any attention to us. No salesman can sell anything unless he can explain the merits of his goods in effective English, nor can a lover make love without words to express himself. Indeed, the way we talk, and write letters, largely determines our success in life, both social and business.

Language is a sort of code by which we seek to influence the minds of other people, and the most important thing about it is the effect which the words and phrases we use have upon these other people. Just how does a word strike the other person's ear? How does it make him feel? If it strikes him favorably, and makes him feel the way we should like to have him feel, we are using language successfully—we couldn't possibly use it any better. The real

authorities on correct use are not the dictionaries or the critics or school teachers but the people who listen to what we have to say, and approve our way of saying it, or question it. If we wish to appeal to educated people generally, then the usage of educated people is what we need to know. There has been in books on English a great deal of theoretical criticism of what ought to be good or bad, but in this modern age educators are agreed that above the dictionaries and the critics is the customary usage of educated people. The words, phrases, and sentences which such people like to use and like to hear are good even if they can't be explained in a logical way. Our English language is full of curious idioms that have grown up quite unconsciously, but some finer instinct of the mind recognizes the fact that these expressions are good and effective, and so educated people use them even if they are quite unable to explain them. Language is a living, growing organism, like a tree or a vine. It is always changing, and we must take it as we find it, constantly trying to understand it better.

But we must go still farther. We must face the fact that there is no absolute right or wrong. Words are good or bad according to the time and occasion on which they are used, and the person to whom they are addressed. The great thing is to *know* something about the words and expressions we use so that we can tell just what effect they will have on the ear and mind of the particular person to whom we speak them. If we are talking to an educated person and say "couldn't hardly" or "hadn't ought," we betray to that person that we are uneducated our-

selves—we “give ourselves away,”—and he is disgusted with us and forgets the interesting and useful things we are trying to say.

In the past we have made the mistake of supposing that if we learn the rules of grammar and rhetoric we shall know what is right and what is wrong. Yet there are many who can say, “I have studied grammar for years and it has done me no good.” That is probably quite true, because the studying has been from the wrong point of view. A measuring stick is of little value unless you have something to measure. Language cannot be acquired by analysis, but only tested, and grammar is an analytic and critical science, not a constructive one. Still, it helps us to *know* whether we are right or not, and so it is one of the elements that we must make use of.

How then, shall we go about mastering the English language?

In recent years we have learned that the study of English is a far simpler undertaking than we had at first thought. Though there are some 400,000 words in the language, the ordinary person probably does not *use* more than 4,000 or 5,000, and does not need to *understand* more than 10,000 for most practical purposes. A list of 1,000 words will contain most of those we are likely to misspell, and if we will check up our own faults we probably shall find not more than 100 or 200 that trouble us,—possibly no more than 50 or 60. All we need is a simple system to discover what the 50 or 60, or 100 or 200 are.

Most of the rules of grammar we obey unconsciously, and if we are not in any trouble about

them there is little need for us to study them. On certain points there is great danger of confusion, as on pronouns that have two forms such as *I* and *me*, *he* and *him*, *we* and *us*, and on the agreement of some verbs with their subjects when we do not know whether a subject such as *each* or *every* is singular or plural. In all there appear to be not more than 25 principles of grammatical usage, and perhaps 150 special cases of customary incorrect use which are really troublesome. If we can get a clear understanding of these it will enable us to correct much the larger part of our own habitual mistakes and confusions. So also punctuation, pronunciation, and the good use of ordinary words are by no means impossibly large or difficult subjects to master if we go about it in a rational and common-sense way with a trustworthy guide.

We need to realize at the start, however, that though English has now been greatly simplified, the changing of habits is always difficult. It requires a terrific effort. We can't go about the subject in any half-hearted way. We must make a drive, head-on, with all the force of our will. At the same time we must follow the right technique.

In the matter of *diction*, or right choice of words, there used to be a long list of expressions that were taboo and must never be used. Today, since the publication of the Oxford Dictionary, we think of different levels of speech. The formal or literary level in these days has become far less important than it used to be because we like to talk in a natural and simple way even in sermons and public addresses instead of "orating"; the level of good colloquial

usage is perfectly suited to the informal interchange of conversation and personal letters; on the level of the low colloquial we find homely expressions that are tainted with a vulgarity or offensiveness which makes educated people dislike them; and we recognize the level of slang, or what may be called new, and experimental expressions that often are racy and effective on certain occasions, especially between intimate friends, but lack dignity and permanence for serious speech and writing. This brings us back to what different people think and feel about words and expressions, and how we may choose the right language to produce the effects we desire.

Taken up in this way the study of English may be as fascinating and romantic as under the old grind of grammar and parsing and formal rules it was dull and hateful. We never can master any subject till we learn to like it a little, and if the reading of this set of books on the Art of Writing and Speaking the English Language helps people to find the study of words and their uses interesting, that interest is likely to go through life with them and finally make them truly educated people in the best sense of that word.

The Trend of Modern Usage—Fit the Word to the Occasion

It is natural that we should all wish to keep the English language as simple as possible. The student likes to be told definitely that this is right and that is wrong. Teachers are irritated by numerous exceptions to the rules they lay down. But the in-

evitable result of having two standards of good use, the literary standard and the colloquial standard, with all the gradations between, is to introduce a new element into the art of good English to which we have not been accustomed, namely applying the adage "fit the word to the occasion" to grammatical correctness as well as to rhetorical effectiveness. The principle of relativity has entered into language just as it has into science, and if a yard is no longer a yard, or an atom of solid matter no longer an atom when it may lose some of its electrons at any moment, we must use our rules of grammar with discretion.

While English that makes pretensions to literary style is often highly colored, and is read quite as much for delight in the language as for interest in what is said, the ideal of the English of conversation and letter writing assuredly is that of a limpid, colorless medium like air or water—the less attention it attracts to itself the better it is. It is merely a means of conveying our thoughts and feelings, and if we wish to get them into another person's mind we need to avoid all forms that sound stiff or unnatural—even consciously or awkwardly correct and so a little pretentious. This is undoubtedly a more difficult art than the old one that was taught us years ago in school and college—and correspondingly more flexible and effective for our purposes. A few illustrations will help us to understand what is meant.

The last sentence in Lincoln's Gettysburg speech (you will find it as the concluding literary selection in the volume "Composition") violates the rule

of grammar against mixed constructions. Let me quote it:

It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us,—that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion,—that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain,—that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom,—and that government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

The first “that” after the first dash appears to mean “so that,” but when we get down to the second, third, and fourth “that’s” we seem to have a construction parallel to the original infinitive “for us to be here dedicated.”

I never suspected there was anything wrong with this passage till a college professor called my attention to this “violation of a rule of grammar” (it was the late Prof. Maurice Egan of the Catholic University at Washington). Of course the easy remedy for the error would be to place a period after “the last full measure of devotion” and start a new sentence with a repetition of “It is rather for us to be here dedicated” in such form as to supply a logical introduction for all the clauses beginning with “that” which follow. But think what a horrible massacre of the lyrical movement this formal introduction of a correcting clause would produce! Is it not far simpler to do as Lincoln did—just let the hearer unconsciously and instantaneously supply the missing clause for himself? Our language is full of condensations and short-cuts. It is a rhetorical waste to express in words anything which the mind of the

hearer will supply for himself. The hearer resents the criticism of his intelligence involved in this literal-minded repetition. The essence of successful play writing is to make the man in the audience collaborate with the author by drawing little inferences for himself and filling in the gaps to his own great satisfaction and delight. We hear how important it is in writing for the public, to explain everything in the utmost detail as for an eight-year-old child; but it is equally important to avoid giving offense by writing for the eight-year-old as if he were only seven-year-old. Children are won by writing and speaking to them as if they were equals, though without wandering far beyond the limited and simple vocabulary which they can understand, and the same principle applies to all classes of people.

In a racy, satirical speech one business executive said to another who had referred a point of grammar to the University of Chicago, "I don't know who you consulted there—quite likely it was Coach Stagg." As you hear that—as you would hear it in rapid speech—would you notice anything wrong with it? Yet the pronoun "who" must be the object of the verb "consulted." Would you change it to "whom"? If you did, would you not feel you would be condemned for being pedantic? Is it not better to make the error that will go unnoticed by at least ninety-nine out of a hundred than to invite the condemnation on other grounds of ninety-nine out of a hundred? Possibly the grammarians are wrong in their application of the rule and when the interrogative "who" begins the clause, we may think of it as

a condensed form of "Who is it whom you consulted?" The fact is, the best authorities today have abandoned the interrogative "whom" altogether.

Nearly everyone recognizes the flat adverb as an idiom of the English language in such an expression as "You'd better go slow," but the artistic sense of fifteen out of twenty-two authors preferred "Drive slowly down that hill," though twenty-two out of thirty professional linguists could see no difference.

If college presidents in public addresses pronounce such words as *advisor* with a full *or* sound instead of the usual *er*, or *operate* with a long *e* in the middle (*op'ē rate*) instead of our usual *op'er ate*, should their students in the classroom try to be extra-meticulous and say *er'ror* instead of the usual *er'er*? The formality of formal addresses is one thing, and the informality of classroom talk is another. In any case, even in a formal address, the college president would not say *er'ror* even if he did say *ad-vi'sor*, any more than he would pronounce the unimportant word *the* with a long *e*. Formality of pronunciation is a touch you give only to formal words. The student who has been drilled on the long *u* sound in *gratitude*, *news*, and *Tuesday* slips up when he tries to carry his artificial rule to *blue*, which linguists tell us should be pronounced *bluo* because the long *u* sound is too difficult to pronounce after *bl*.

Such colloquial words as *nice*, *awful*, *guess*, *fix* would certainly be regarded as a blemish in a newspaper editorial (unless they were used humorously or satirically); but any other words substituted for the colloquial uses of these in children's conversation among themselves would be equally out of place and

equally worthy of condemnation from the point of view of suitability. The essence of good use is in knowing when to use such words and when not to use them—"fitting the word to the occasion."

We are all familiar with the customary singular use of such plural forms as *politics*, *athletics*, and *means*. The Latin plural *opera* from *opus*, *operis*, has been accepted completely as a singular, perhaps because it came to us from the Italian with a purely singular special meaning. Can *data* (the Latin plural form of *datum*), which is now a thoroughly domesticated English word, be ever regarded as a singular? In our English use it is clearly a collective noun, and the plural aspect of the word is often lost entirely. If I entered your office and said, "This data is now complete" the meaning would undoubtedly be expressed more accurately than if I were to say "These data are now complete," for this latter expression implies various clearly distinguished units which do not exist in the thought of anyone. The plural expression evidently distorts the meaning, and in such a case there is no doubt in the world that sooner or later the needs of accurate expression will prevail over an artificial philology. At the same time no educated person would dare to stand up before a meeting of the National Education Association and use *data* as a singular. We would all simply sidestep the matter by using the word in some position in the sentence where its plural or singular form would not be in question. There are some things we need to know merely to avoid them as too learned if not as too vulgar.

If the principal of a school came into a classroom

and told about some wonderful exploit performed by one of the boys, could you criticize the excited lad for exclaiming under his breath "That's me!" If he said priggishly "That's I," he would probably be ostracized by his fellow pupils. At the same time if he were called before the principal in his private office to account for some serious offense that he had committed, he would be well advised to choose some other form than "That was me," though probably at the same time he would equally avoid "That was I." Once more we see that we need to know what is considered right and wrong in order to avoid both. And likewise anyone who exclaimed "That was them, all right!" would probably be set down as uneducated. So far as rules of grammar are concerned, "That is me" is precisely in the same class with "That is him" or "That is them," but for some reason our language instincts make us feel that there is a great difference. Possibly "That is I" sounds too blatantly egotistical, and that is why people in conversation and on the stage find themselves unable to utter it, try as they will under the whip of teaching. But of course the other pronouns are free from that difficulty. I don't know. The unconscious working of the language instinct is difficult to analyze.

Of course we know that words in the class of "everyone," "someone," or "either" and "neither" are logically singular; but it cannot be denied that these words have a distinctly plural aspect. Shall we deny that plural aspect and refer to them exclusively at all times by singular pronouns? Only a few of Professor Leonard's 222 English experts were willing to tolerate "Everybody bought their own ticket";

but the case was very different with "Everyone was here, but they all went home early." All the educational juries would accept it in colloquial use, and while the professional juries of authors, editors, and business men gave majorities against it, the very conservative authors were divided almost equally—11 for and 12 against. Anyone can see that if the plural noun "guest" were substituted for "they" the grammar of the sentence would be entirely above criticism. In the shorthand of conversation why may not the antecedent of "they" be considered to be the noun "guests" implied? For it is perfectly clear that something of the sort is implied.

There is another point on which usage is distinctly wavering, and that is the use of the possessive or the objective case before verbal nouns (gerunds). The British "Society for Pure English" has published a pamphlet on the subject by the great Danish authority Otto Jespersen, in which he argues that both constructions have been recognized in English literature for two hundred years or more.

In the sentence "I saw him going down the street" it is clear that the object of the verb "saw" is "him," and "going" is a participle, adjective in nature. But in "I did not approve of his going down the street," it is equally clear that the object of the preposition "of" is the verbal noun "going," and this difference of meaning is made instantly clear by the possessive pronoun "his." No one would wish to obscure this useful device of language by encouraging the vulgar use of the objective pronoun in such a situation. When we have an impersonal noun as the subject of the gerund, as in the sentence "I recom-

mend this subject's being taken up at our next meeting," we feel that the possessive form ought not to be applied to such impersonal words as "subject." In cases of that kind the simple form "subject" certainly sounds more natural than "subject's." Again, if I say "What do you think of Helen's and my coming to call on you this afternoon" the two possessives are so awkward that many good speakers refuse to use them and prefer to say "What do you think of Helen and me coming to call on you this afternoon?"

With one more illustration we must have done with this argument. Teachers have had such a job with their pupils to make them divide their words into sentences at all that they have developed a violent prejudice against opening the door in any way whatever to what they call "the comma splice." Nevertheless professional writers from the earliest days of modern punctuation have recognized that when two clauses are closely related by contrast or otherwise in what we may call a grammatical sense, running them together with only a comma between is equivalent to making a compound sentence with an implied conjunction. In such cases the comma is really better than a conjunction, because there is a meaning expressed that can be conveyed by no conjunction in the language. The sentence "This book is valueless, that one has more to recommend it" was approved by all of Professor Leonard's juries except the high school teachers, and they were against it by a majority of only one.

In short, it is evident that the successful writer or speaker will use even the rules of grammar with tact,

and not allow himself to be made a slave of any narrow logic, which after all may be based on inadequate premises. In matters of language, a trained and cultivated instinct is nearly always a safer guide than any set rules; but the master of English can never know too much about it. The real crime is ignorance.

GRAMMAR

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KEY TO ERRORS OF GRAMMAR

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92. Educated people condemn—

"them boys" (very low colloquial)

"most anybody"

"raised" for "reared"

"different than" for "different from"

"these kind of people" for "this kind"

"Where am I at?" (very low colloquial)

"leave me come in" for "let me come in"

"wa'n't" for "wasn't"

"off of" for "from" or "off" without "of"

"some better" for "somewhat better"

Chapter VIII. English Idiom

93. Idioms

94. Indirect object

95. Adverbial nouns

96. Possessive case interchangeable with phrase with "of"

97. Meaning of possessives coupled by "and"

98. Phrase or clause used as subject or object of verb

99. "By killing his victim" or "By the killing of his victim," both right

100. Noun in apposition with phrase or clause

101. Object unexplained in "They were offered a pardon"

102. Use of hyphens in compounds—*coalbin*, *apple tree*, *old-fashioned*

103. What is antecedent of *it* in "It rains"?

104. Double possessive "a book of John's"—*hers*, *mine*, *yours*

105. Antecedent may follow a pronoun

106. Interjections—"Ah me!" (objective case), "O thou," "O ye" (subjective)

- 107. Is *as* a relative pronoun in "as follows"?
- 108. Analysis of "as soon as," "such as"
- 109. "As regards," "as though" for "as if"
- 110. Defense of "more perfect," "most complete,"
etc.

Chapter IX. Conclusion

Review Test on Correct English Usage

Appendix—What is Good English?

GRAMMAR

INTRODUCTION

HOW TO STUDY GRAMMAR

The subject of grammar * originally included all that we have considered under the head of "Word Study," and also the subject of prosody, or verse making. It was defined as the art or science of writing and speaking a language correctly in every detail.

In modern usage the meaning of the word has been restricted to accuracy in the relation of words in sentence structure. One writer has defined it as "the science of the sentence." In Latin and Greek the relations of words in sentences were indicated by a system of terminations, and the study of grammar was largely a process of memorizing these terminations. At the bottom of all, however, was a logical relationship between words, which was as fixed and definite as the laws of mathematics; and an intelligent and literary use of the language required a full appreciation of this word-logic. In English the terminations have nearly all been lost, and the essential logic of sentence structure has become the main

* The word grammar is derived from the Greek *gramma*, a letter, and so meant minute accuracy in writing.

thing. In English, therefore, it has been necessary to abandon the methods used in teaching Latin and Greek grammar, and present the subject in a wholly different way.

The early teaching of English grammar was merely adapted from the Latin, and was entirely too complicated and theoretical to be of any practical use. In recent years there has been a tendency to omit all teaching of formal grammar, but that is very unwise. Everyone needs to understand grammar, first because there are a few irregular forms in English which cause much confusion; secondly because unless we understand the logical structure of the sentence we can make nothing of punctuation, which is closely connected with emphasis, which in turn is a vital element in English expression.

There are two important phases of the subject, both of which we need to understand thoroughly. There is the logical relationship of words in the sentence, which is unchanging and may fairly be regarded as a science. There is also the question of meanings and values of words, which are determined by usage and which are likely to change more or less as time goes by. On some points confusion is likely, and we need to master thoroughly the underlying principles that will help us to clear up that confusion. The mere correction of errors without this understanding of principles will help us little. We should therefore begin at the foundation and build up that knowledge of the few principles of grammar which is going to help us in a practical way, at the same time passing over all those points which we will get right naturally and instinctively because

there is inherent in them little possibility of confusion. That small amount of practical grammar needs to be mastered very thoroughly. It will not only help us to clear up positive errors into which we are liable to fall, but also give us a better understanding of the logical structure of the sentence, which we need for successful use of the English language.

It is really remarkable to what an extent grammar may be simplified for ordinary use. Words may have seven different logical relationships to ideas and to each other as used in a sentence, which are known as the parts of speech (the logical relationships of the noun and of the pronoun being regarded as the same). These principal relationships have important modifications in the case of nouns and pronouns, and verbs. But here in a nutshell we have practically the whole science of grammar. The few forms to indicate cases of nouns, and number and person of verbs we do not need to learn because we know them already, and all we require is to be able to distinguish those cases in which confusion is possible. It is of little use to us to be able to name all the combinations of words in English which are merely a part of theoretical grammar. We also have little use for the names of groups of words, of kinds of sentences, etc. The only thing really required is an understanding of the fundamental logical laws according to which words must be united if they are to form perfect sentences. If we know twenty-five principles in grammar—the twenty-five most essential—we may write with reasonable accuracy without knowing a thousand and one minor points such as

may be found in Gould Brown's Grammar of Grammars.*

But this simplification of grammar does not mean quite so much as it seems to. We must admit that it is easier to learn the thousand and one useless things than the twenty-five essentials. Indeed, if we understood the seven fundamental relationships denominated the parts of speech we should probably be excellent grammarians; but few of us ever do fully master even those seven fundamentals of word-logic.† We find it very easy to fall into the mechanical habit of saying *but* is a conjunction, *by* is a preposition, etc.; so of course we are puzzled when *but* is a preposition or an adjective or a noun or a verb, and our system fails us when we come across *by* used as an adverb or the like. The truth is that the "parts of speech" are not "classes of words," as we have been told, but "classes of logical relationships in sentences," and nothing on earth will enable us to tell what part of speech any given word

* Prof. W. W. Charters in an investigation published by the U. S. Bureau of Education lists twenty-five principles of grammar as accounting for most of the actual errors made by school children. They will be found set forth in the following pages.

† "All language is imperfectly logical," remarks a friendly critic on reading this declaration of principles. That is quite true. As far as the values of words are concerned, language is a purely natural growth. Not only does the same word have many different meanings, but its value in relation to other words is constantly shifting without any logical reason for doing so. These shifting word values we must learn by reading good books and talking with cultivated people. This natural side of language is illustrated by our idioms. But once we have determined our word values, we must unite our words in sentences for the expression of our thought according to exactly the same laws which govern our thinking, that is, the laws of logical sequence.

is except as we find it in a sentence, or conveying an idea of some kind. The idea which the word conveys is the sole determining factor. In this book we undertake to separate the logical relationship of words in sentences from the changing meanings and values of those words, to which are due the so-called "illogical" phases of grammar.

One class of words does convey ideas without assistance, and that is the "name" class—"nouns." Beginning with this class, let us examine the various relationships which other words may have to it and to each other until we have arrived at the complete and perfect *sentence*,—our unit in grammar, just as the *word* is our unit in spelling. This part of our work is fully defined by the term "sentence-study."

CHAPTER I

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

1. **Nouns.** In the paragraph which follows let us pick out the words that stand for some definite object we can think of:

"The first place that I can well remember was a large, pleasant meadow, with a pond of clear water in it. Some shady trees leaned over it, and rushes and water-lilies grew at the deep end. Over the hedge on one side we looked into a plowed field, and on the other we looked over a gate at our master's house, which stood by the roadside. At the top of the meadow was a grove of fir trees, and at the bottom a running brook overhung by a steep bank." *

* This is the opening paragraph of "Black Beauty," the imaginary story of a horse.

Words that stand for definite objects here are *meadow, pond, water, trees*; also *place, end, top*, etc. Say nothing but the word *pond*, for instance, and you have in your mind a clear picture of something real.

In the sentences in this passage there are also many other kinds of words, such as *the, remember, with, pleasant, over*. But none of these words means anything definite except in connection with other words. *Pond* calls up the idea of a pond, without any other words being needed, but *remember* means nothing unless there is someone who remembers, and something that is remembered. So *over* and *the* mean nothing except in connection with other words. Even *pleasant* must be connected with some other word in order to have its full meaning, as "a pleasant day," "a pleasant thought," or the like.

By careful consideration you will see that every word depends on some other word, until you come back to the *noun*, or name-word, which is complete in itself. Each word in a complete sentence has a fixed logical relationship of its own. The study of these logical relationships is the basis of grammar. The starting-point is the noun, which represents a complete idea in itself, and which (along with the other words that may accompany it) gives us the "subject" (of a sentence). A *sentence* is a complete chain of words, representing a complete thought.

2. **Verbs.** A noun, as we have said, means something apart from any other word connected with it. But when we say *boy, man, tree, John* we call up merely a picture. If we wish to speak of the boy

as running, the man as walking, the tree as growing, John as speaking, we must use a verb. When we say "The boy runs," "The man walks," "The tree grows," "John speaks," we make a statement, we assert something to be true. The word that asserts, such as *runs*, *walks*, or *speaks*, is called a verb. A verb also expresses a command, as when we say "Run, John," or it asks a question, as when we say "Does John run?"

As we shall see later, a verb often comprises several separate words, as *might have done*, *shall have been done*, *can be done*, *is being done*, etc. The verb (with all the words connected with it) is called the "predicate" of the sentence. Each predicate with its subject constitutes a "clause." Several clauses may be joined by conjunctions to a main clause to form a complete sentence.

Participles are forms of the verb that may be used as adjectives or as nouns. The present participle ends in *ing*, as *rising*, *living*, etc. The past participle regularly ends in *ed*, as *walked*, *called*, etc., though there are various irregular forms such as *gone*, *broken*, *got*, *written*, etc.

In participles and in certain other forms of the verb called infinitives (*to walk*, *to have*) the assertive quality of the verb is imperfect, but it still exists.

3. **Pronouns.** There are a number of small words that take the place of nouns, called pronouns (Latin "for nouns"). Thus when I speak of myself I do not call myself by name and say "John runs"; I say "I run." If we have once mentioned John's name, so that we know to whom *he* refers, we say "He walks." And if we have been talking about the

meadow, instead of repeating the word we say "It is full of water." These words, called pronouns, have just the same relationships in sentences as nouns. The chief difficulty in the use of them comes in making it clear to exactly what noun each pronoun refers. The noun to which a pronoun refers is called its *antecedent*, and a pronoun should not be far from the noun for which it stands. Besides the personal pronouns mentioned above there are more general ones such as *one*, *some*, *this*, *these*, and the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, which also serve as subordinate conjunctions.

4. **Adjectives.** Then there are words which are usually placed before nouns to describe them. When we say, "A large pleasant meadow," *a*, *large*, and *pleasant*, are descriptive of the noun *meadow*. They are called adjectives. When we say, "The boy is good," *good* is an adjective also, though placed after the verb, because it expresses a quality of the noun *boy*. *First*, *last*, *white*, *blue*, *fair*, *sweet*, *kind*, *lovely*, *hard*, *bitter*, *sour*, etc. are all words used to describe nouns,—that is, adjectives, though under some circumstances they may also be other parts of speech.

5. **Adverbs.** When we say, "The sun shines brightly," "The man strikes hard," "I am heartily pleased to see you," etc., *brightly* modifies *shines*, *hard* modifies *strikes*, *heartily* modifies *pleased*, telling how the sun shines, how the man strikes, how much I am pleased to see you. These words are called adverbs. When we say, "I am here," "Do you love me now?" "Speak thus," the words *here*, *now*, and *thus*, expressing place, time, and manner, are

also adverbs. Again when we say, "He speaks very plainly," "He draws extremely badly," not only *plainly* and *badly* are adverbs modifying verbs, but *very* and *extremely* are also adverbs, though they modify other adverbs. We also say, "He is a very good boy," "The day is tediously long," "The rose has an exquisitely sweet odor," and in these sentences *very*, *tediously*, and *exquisitely* are adverbs modifying adjectives.

Adverbs are words which modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

(Note.—There are many words placed in the predicate near the verb which are not adverbs. We shall find later that these may be "predicate adjectives," "predicate nouns," and nouns which are objects of the verbs.)

6. **Prepositions.** There are also various small words which introduce nouns. Thus we have such phrases as "from the gate," "above the water," "into the sea," "by means of love," etc. The words *from*, *above*, *into*, *by*, *of*, used to introduce the nouns which follow them and connect them to other nouns and to verbs, etc., are called *prepositions*. A preposition with its noun is called a *phrase*. A phrase that modifies a noun just as an adjective does, is called an *adjective phrase*, and a phrase that modifies a verb just like an adverb, is called an *adverbial phrase*.

A prepositional phrase (there are other kinds of phrases) may have any or all the relationships which an adjective or an adverb may have.

Such phrases as "to go," "to be," "to kill," etc., in which a verb follows the preposition *to*, are called the "infinitive mode of the verb." The *to* is often

omitted or implied. It is not really a preposition, but is called "the sign of the infinitive."

7. **Conjunctions.** A word that joins together two words, two phrases, or two clauses is called a conjunction. Words and phrases thus joined together are always in the same construction and of equal value, but this is not always the case with clauses. When we have to join clauses together we discover that there are two kinds of conjunctions, which are used for indicating two different relationships between clauses. In joining the equal clauses of a *compound sentence* (see page 49) we employ what are called co-ordinate conjunctions: *and*, *or* (*nor*), *but*. In joining dependent clauses (see pages 49-51) to the rest of the sentence we employ what are called subordinate conjunctions. A subordinate conjunction introduces a clause to the rest of the sentence in much the same way that a preposition introduces a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence. The commonest of these is *that* (which is also used as a relative pronoun). It is used as a conjunction after *said* and similar words in such sentences as "He said that he would do the work" or "He was told that he must do it." In such cases it is frequently merely implied, as in "He said he would do the work." (We see it used as a relative pronoun in "He gave me the book that you lent him," in which *that* means the same as *book* and stands for it.) Other common subordinate conjunctions are—*if*, *because*, *unless*, *whether*, *why*, *as*, *though*. The word *for* is sometimes considered a co-ordinate conjunction, but it probably belongs in the subordinate list. An important group of conjunctions is made

up of those which have adverbial value and might be called relative adverbs, though there is no special practical reason for classifying them otherwise than as subordinate conjunctions. They include—*when, where, how, until, while, before, since, after*. Of course the relative pronouns *who, which, what, that*, perform the function of subordinate conjunctions as well as pronouns, but it is more convenient to call them pronouns.

8. **Interjections.** The only other kind of word which we shall find is the interjection. Examples: *Oh! ah! alas!* The interjection stands alone, without direct relationship to other words. We may call it a "sentence word" because it is equivalent to an entire sentence.

We now have a rough classification of the different kinds of relationships which a word may have in a sentence. These relationships are called "the parts of speech." A word will sometimes have one relationship, and sometimes another. Thus, *that* may be a pronoun, a conjunction, an adjective; *but* may be a preposition as well as a conjunction; and any word when spoken of as an object is a noun.

Exercise 1

Write out the following first paragraph of the *King of the Golden River*, placing the words in a column one below the other, and opposite each word indicate its part of speech. We will count *a* and *the* as adjectives, and will treat each word that goes to make up a verb phrase as a separate verb. The notes indicate a few pairs of words that may be counted in the score as

single words. There is a total of 230 parts of speech, of which 48 are nouns, 22 pronouns, 29 verbs, 54 adjectives, 21 adverbs, 32 prepositions, and 24 conjunctions.

In a secluded and mountainous part of Syria there¹ was, in old time, a valley of the most surprising and luxuriant fertility. It was surrounded on all sides by steep and rocky mountains, rising² into peaks which were always covered with snow, and from which a number of torrents descended in constant cataracts. One³ of these fell westward over the face of a crag so high⁴ that,⁵ when the sun had set to everything else⁶ and all below⁷ was darkness, his beams still shone full⁸ upon this waterfall, so that⁹ it looked like a shower of gold. It was, therefore,¹⁰ called by the people of the neighborhood the Golden River.¹¹ It was strange that none of these streams fell into the valley itself.¹² They all¹³ descended on the other side of the mountains and wound away through broad plains and by populous cities. But¹⁴ the clouds were drawn so constantly to the snowy hills, and rested so softly in the circular hollow, that in time of drought and heat, when all the country round was burnt up, there was still rain in the little valley; and its crops were so heavy, and its hay so high, and its apples so red, and its grapes so blue, and its wine so rich, and its honey so sweet, that it was a marvel to everyone who beheld it, and was commonly called the Treasure Valley.¹⁵

1. *There* is an anticipative adverb, which fills the place of the subject of the verb *was* so that this subject (*valley*) may be placed after the verb. 2. *Rising* is a participle which may be classified as an adjective modi-

ying mountains. 3. We may call *one* a pronoun taking the place of *cataract*. 4. *High* is an adjective modifying *crag*, though it follows its noun. 5. *That* as a subordinate conjunction introduces the clause "his beams still shone" some distance ahead through the adverb *so* before *high*. 6. Regard *else* as an adjective though it follows its noun *everything*. 7. *All* is a noun and *below* may be called an adjective, though the full form would be "all which is below," in which *below* appears as an adverb, which is its usual construction. 8. We may regard *full* as a predicate adjective. 9. *So that* is a compound conjunction and may be counted as one word. 10. *Therefore* is an adverb modifying the verb *was called*. 11. *Golden River* may be treated as a single compound noun. 12. *Itself* is an intensive pronoun. 13. Here *all* is an adjective modifying *they*. 14. *But* connects the entire sentence that follows to the ideas in what precedes. 15. We will call *Treasure Valley*, like *Golden River*, a single noun.

CHAPTER II

THE SENTENCE

9. A sentence is a collection of words so chosen and arranged as to express a thought completely. Nouns may express ideas, but they do not represent a thought. The expression of a thought absolutely requires a verb united to a noun (or pronoun). The noun constitutes the *simple subject*, and the verb the *simple predicate* of the sentence. Any collection of words which does not contain both a subject and a predicate, expressed or implied, does not constitute a sentence or represent a thought. (Fragmentary phrases, if any special thought is attached to them,

must be supposed to imply the lacking members.) The simple subject and the simple predicate may have modifiers, and together with these modifiers they constitute the *complete subject* and the *complete predicate*.

The following example will illustrate the fundamental and necessary division of every sentence into subject and predicate.

<i>The Subject</i> (noun)	<i>The Predicate</i> (verb)
The country <i>church</i>	<i>is</i> a square old building of wood.
<i>It</i>	<i>stands</i> upon a hill with a little churchyard in its rear where
one or two sickly <i>trees</i>	<i>keep</i> watch and ward over the vagrant sheep
<i>that</i>	<i>graze</i> among the graves.
Bramble <i>bushes</i>	<i>seem</i> to thrive on the bodies below,
	and
no <i>flower</i>	there <i>is</i>
	in the yard, save a few goldenrods
<i>which</i>	<i>flaunt</i> their gaudy, in-odorous color under the lee of the northern wall.

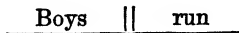
10. Our first observation upon this is that each complete sentence seems to contain more than one subject and predicate. For instance, in the second

sentence we have three subjects and three predicates, and also three in the next and last. We also observe, however, that each subject has its own definite predicate, and that the succeeding sets of subjects and predicates are connected with each other by conjunctions. The unit containing a subject and predicate we call a clause.

When the subjects and predicates are of equal importance, and are connected by conjunctions capable of connecting equals, we have a *compound* sentence; when one subject and predicate is subordinate to another, and is connected to it by a conjunction used to show subordinate relationship, we have a *complex* sentence.

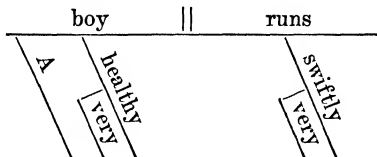
11. In every sentence we must have a *principal subject* and a *principal predicate* to which all other words must be related.

In analyzing any sentence, our first task should be to find the principal subject and the principal predicate, and then trace out the chain of relationships of every other word to these. It is not difficult to make a picture, or diagram,* of these relationships, which will present the whole matter to the eye at a glance. We begin by drawing a straight line and dividing it distinctly in the middle, and then placing the subject noun or pronoun on the left and the predicate verb on the right, thus:



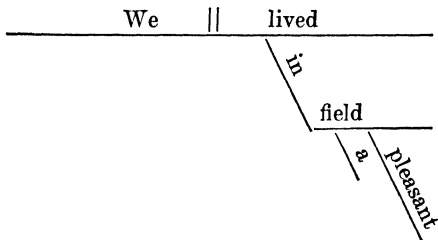
* The diagram is liable to abuse, just as parsing is, but it helps us to comprehend that every word has a fixed relationship in the sentence. For a full exposition of the diagram see Reed and Kellogg's "Higher Lessons in English."

If we have any adjectives or adverbs, we may place them on slanting lines attached to the lines on which stand the words they modify, thus:

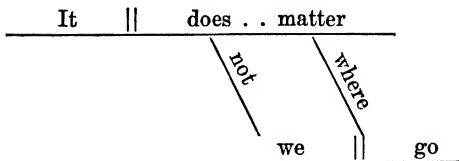


In this sentence *a* and *healthy* are adjectives modifying *boy*, the first *very* is an adverb modifying the adjective *healthy*, *swiftly* is an adverb modifying *runs*, and the second *very* an adverb modifying *swiftly*.

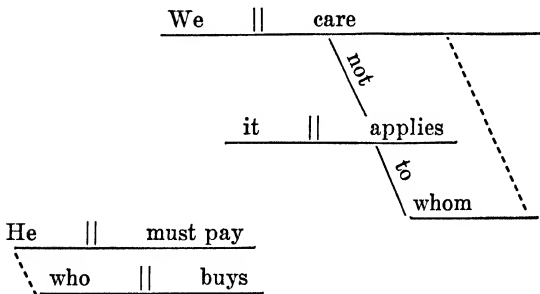
Phrases introduced by prepositions may be treated as follows:



Subordinate clauses introduced by relative adverbs (or adverbial conjunctions) may be diagramed as follows:



But subordinate clauses introduced by relative pronouns which have a necessary office in the subordinate clause must be connected to the main clause by a blank or dotted line, thus:



12. There are many other relationships besides those we have pictured; but these will illustrate the two most important laws in grammar, which may be stated as follows:

Law I. No collection of words expresses thought, and no sentence exists, unless a noun or pronoun (expressed or implied) unites with a verb (expressed or implied) to form a subject and a predicate.

Law II. Every word in a sentence must have a clear relationship, directly or through other words, to the principal simple subject or the principal simple predicate, that is, to the main noun or pronoun, or to the main verb.

13. The only apparent exception to the last statement is the interjection, which is a word that is as nearly independent as a word can be. Close logical analysis, however, will show, either that the interjection is in some way related to an adjoining sentence without which it would be devoid of meaning or significance; or it is a condensed sentence* in itself, distinctly implying a subject or a predicate or both. For instance, if we go about shouting "Fire! Fire! Fire!" we are simply condensing into a word some such full sentence as "There is a fire," or "Come and see the fire," or "Come and put out the fire." Implied words are frequent, and must always be supplied if we would understand grammatical relationships. Such interjections as "alas!" "oh!" "ah!" as a usual thing have no special meaning except in connection with some sentence, as in "Oh, I don't know." Grammarians have never found a name for this relationship, and in picturing such a sentence we set the interjection apart; but the relationship evidently exists, and we may remark in passing that it would have been just as well if the grammarians had failed to find names for some other relationships no more distinct than this.

* Interjectory noises, such as grunts, squeals, etc., are the most primitive methods of expression. Animals usually have no other kind of speech (if speech this may be called).

Exercise 2

Draw a line down the center of a sheet of paper and write out the first paragraph of the *King of the Golden River*, as found in Exercise 1, placing all words that belong to complete subjects on the lefthand side and all words belonging to complete predicates on the right-hand side of the line, with conjunctions which unite clauses written in the middle across the line.

CHAPTER III

CASES OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

14. Nouns, we have learned, are the names of things. An idea, a thought, an act may also have a name, which is a noun (called *abstract*). Several forms of the verb and verbal phrases are also used as nouns, as in "*Doing* is better than *waiting*," "*To be cautious* is a necessity in business," and "*Growing old* should not make a man sour."

15. We have seen nouns as subjects of verbs, the starting-points of sentences. They may also be objects of verbs or prepositions. A preposition must have a noun as object, since the sole office of prepositions is to introduce nouns, or pronouns. Unless a word has such an object, it is not a preposition. Active verbs also take a noun as object when they are of such a nature that they express action which passes over to an object. Thus when we say "He killed a man," the word *man* is an object noun, since the action of the subject as expressed in the verb passes over and takes effect on the object *man*.

Subject nouns are said to be in the *subjective* or

nominative case, and object nouns are said to be in the *objective* case.

16. Not all nouns that follow verbs are in the objective case. All nouns following the verb *to be* or its parts (*am, is, are, was, were, would be, have been, might be*) are in the subjective or nominative case, and are called *predicate nominatives*, because the verb *to be* merely asserts that the subject is the same as the noun in the predicate. Thus in "John is a man," *man* is precisely the same as the subject and the verb *is* merely asserts this sameness. So also in the sentence "John will become a man," *man* and *John* are equivalent, or are in the process of becoming so. There is no action which passes over to an object. Of course in the sentence, "He killed himself," *he* and *himself* are the same, but in this case the man is the object of his own act.

17. **Case of Pronouns.** Nouns in English have the same form, whether they are in the subjective or in the objective case. But pronouns, the words which stand for nouns and are used so very frequently, have in many instances different forms for the subjective and objective cases, as follows:

Subjective

I
we
he
she
they
who

Objective

me
us
him
her
them
whom

Therefore we should say "It is I," not "It is me," "It is he, she, they, or we," not "It is him, her, them,

or us," as we often hear people say.* Also, remembering that the object of a preposition is always in the objective case, we will say "between you and me," not "between you and I," "It can be done by you and me," not "It can be done by you and I." We would not say "between I and the fence-post," nor "It is being done by I and somebody else." These sound absurd. It is quite as absurd to say "between you or the fence-post and I." And of course the subjective case should be used in such a sentence as "We boys are giving this party" (not "us boys"), since "we boys" is subject of the verb "are giving."

18. The verbs followed by the nominative case are very few, but they are so common that they occur as often, probably, as all other verbs put together. They are chiefly *to be* (*is, am, was, were, would be, have been, etc.*), *to become, to appear, and to seem*. There is no action expressed by these verbs, only a state or condition of existence.

19. Nouns and pronouns also have a third case, the *possessive*, indicated in nouns by the apostrophe and *s* or the apostrophe alone. The possessive case has precisely the logical relation in a sentence that an adjective has, that is, it is a direct modifier of a noun, and is used in no other way, though often the noun it modifies is implied. Like a noun, however, it is modified by adjectives, not by adverbs. The case offers no special difficulty. It is usually

* Since "It is I" sounds pedantic, most educated people have a tendency to say "It is me," as the French say *O'est moi* (rather than *O'est je*). If "It is me" is on the way to becoming good usage, the same cannot be said of "It is him," "It is her," etc.

interchangeable with a prepositional phrase containing *of*.

Note. Nouns in the singular regularly form the possessive case by adding an apostrophe and *s*, as *man's*, *John's*, *Dickens's*. Some writers omit the *s* when the singular form itself ends with *s* or an equivalent sound, and write *Dickens'*, *conscience'*, etc.; but the best usage is always to write the *s* after the apostrophe even if it cannot be pronounced. Plural nouns ending in *s* take merely the apostrophe to indicate the possessive case, as *cows'*, *hens'*, *ladies'* (of course "ladies's" would be absurd), etc. If, however, the plural form does not end in *s* the apostrophe must be followed by *s*, as in *men's*, *children's*, etc. Pronouns never take an apostrophe to indicate the possessive case. We write *its*, *his*, *yours*, *hers*, etc. *It's* is a contraction for *it is* and must not be confused with the possessive case of *it*. Likewise *whose* is the possessive case of *who* and *who's* is a contraction of *who is*. The possessive of *one* is either *one's* or *his*.

It may be noted that modern usage is restricting the possessive case as far as possible to persons, or at any rate to animals, or inanimate objects which have been personified. We may say "John's bag," "Alexander's empire," "the pupil's work." We would not say "the pig-pen's side," "the rock's opening," but "the side of the pig-pen," "the opening of (or in) the rock," etc. If we say "Chicago's beauty" we seem to personify the city; and perhaps something of the same sort may be discerned in "the city's progress." "The day's work," "an hour's ride," "for conscience' sake," "art for art's sake" are old forms that have survived so far.

20. **Apposition.** When one noun follows another as an alternative name for the same thing, or to explain the preceding noun, it is said to be in *apposition* with the noun it explains; and as nouns which are in every way equivalent should agree in case, it is an established rule that a noun in apposition with another noun agrees in case with that other noun; and the same rule applies to pronouns, since they take the place of nouns. Thus: "William, conqueror of England, became king." *Conqueror* is equivalent to *William* and is added by way of explanation.

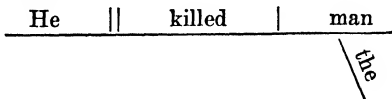
21. The application of this rule to the possessive case is very awkward, however, and is always to be avoided. In some cases in which the explanatory noun is absolutely required, the possessive sign is omitted from one or the other of the pair; and in some cases the whole phrase is treated as a compound word and the sign of the possessive put at the end of the whole. The same rule applies when the possessive has modifiers of any other kind. Thus we may say, "I called at Smith the bookseller's." The latter is the form to be preferred in all such expressions as "William the Conqueror's," "The captain of the guard's house," etc. We even write "no one else's," which sounds more natural than "no one's else."

22. **Predicate Complements.** We have seen that a verb may be followed by an object noun or by a "predicate nominative"—a noun in the nominative or subjective case which means the same as the subject of the verb. The verb may also assert a quality or characteristic of the subject by the use of an adjective in the predicate which really qualifies the

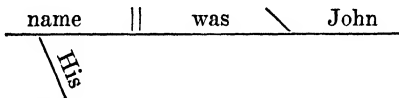
subject, as when we say "He is good" we assert the quality of goodness as belonging to the subject *he*.

These *predicate complements*, as they are called, may be pictured as follows:

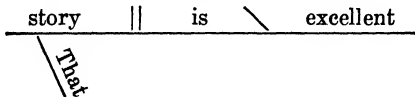
A noun as the direct object of a verb, as in "He killed the man"—



A noun as predicative nominative, as in "His name was John"—



An adjective expressing a quality asserted of the subject, as in "That story is excellent"—



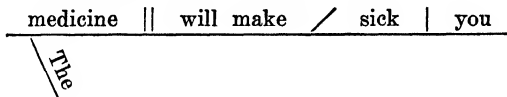
Sameness may be asserted between two objects of an active verb, as in "We named him John," which may be pictured thus:



(In this case *John* is placed before *him*, though *him* is more closely related to the verb, in order that

the slanting line before *John* may clearly indicate that the word is to be connected with *him*. If *John* followed *him*, preceded by a slanting line, it might seem to refer back to the subject, *we*.)

In the same way an active verb may assert a quality of its object, as in "The medicine will make you sick," which may be diagrammed as follows:



These secondary objects and qualifiers are spoken of as *objective* nouns and adjectives, or *objective complements*.

23. Some Troublesome Uses of Pronouns. Mastery of the use of the subjective and objective cases of pronouns would probably eliminate as much as a third of the errors of grammar commonly made. It is therefore important that this subject should be thoroughly understood. The two following situations may be regarded as a test of knowledge of the principles, since they are the most difficult. Reduce them to an everyday habit of thought.

A preposition such as *like* governs the objective case, but conjunctions such as *as* and *than* introduce clauses, of which the verb is frequently or usually implied. For example: "My brother is older than I (am)," "Harry and I are the same age but I am not as tall as he (is)," "The baby looks like me" (but not "acts like I do," for "acts as I do," since *like* ought not to be used as a conjunction). Obviously the objective case cannot be used in these sen-

tences after *as* and *than*, but rather the pronoun forms that will be the subjects of the implied verbs.*

24. Still more difficult is the correct use of *who* and *whom*. In the sentence "Whom will the paper be read by," the objective case *whom* is required as the object of the preposition *by*, which comes at the end of the sentence. In the sentence "I will give this book to whoever will read it first" it would seem at first sight that the preposition *to* should be followed by the objective case *whomever*, but in reality *whoever* is the subject of the verb *will read*, and the real object of the preposition *to* is *him* implied—"I will give it to (him) whoever will read it first." This is a situation where even good writers frequently make mistakes. In "Whom do you expect to meet?" *whom* is the object of *meet*, but in "Who do you expect will go with you?" *who* is the subject of the verb *will go*.

In conversation the use of *whom* at the beginning of a sentence sounds pedantic and the best educated people today avoid it. Since the objective case is not accounted for until the end of the sentence, and the speaker and listener must both hold their minds in suspense until the sentence is ended, use of the correct form may perhaps be a violation of a psychological principle that is more important and supersedes the grammatical principle. If we said apparently incorrectly but quite naturally "Who will the paper be read by?" we might think of it as a

* Sometimes the noun or pronoun after *as* or *than* is the object rather than the subject of an implied verb, and then of course it must be in the objective case. Example: "They loved him more than me;" "It was better expressed by George than him" (i.e., "than *by* him").

condensed form for "Who is it by whom the paper will be read?" English is full of condensed forms, and usually our unconscious instincts, if well trained to begin with, are our safest guides. At any rate it is agreed that we should avoid in some way the awkward use of *whom* at the beginning of a question. At the same time this principle needs to be thoroughly understood or we shall fall into such confusions as "I wish you would tell me whom you expect will be there," in which *whom* as the subject of the verb *will be* should of course be changed to *who*, though if we said "I wish you would tell me whom you expect to be there" we should be correct, since *whom* in that sentence is required as the subject of the infinitive *to be*, which (not being a complete verb) cannot take the subjective case.

Exercise 3

Write the words of the following second paragraph of the *King of the Golden River* in a column on a sheet of paper, and opposite each word indicate the part of speech, and also the case of nouns and pronouns, numbering each separately. Such pairs of words as in Exercise 1 were counted as single words will be counted the same here, and in addition we will treat the sign of the infinitive *to* as part of the verb (*to keep*, for example, as one part of speech). In all there are 258 parts of speech, of which 51 are nouns, 39 are pronouns, 47 are verbs, 46 are adjectives, 23 are adverbs, 28 are prepositions, and 24 are conjunctions. Nouns and pronouns in the subjective case are, in the order in which they come, as follows: 1. whole 2. Schwartz 3. Hans 4. brothers 5. men 6. which 7. you 8. they 9. They 10. farmers 11. they 12. they 13. They 14. they

15. they 16. they 17. which 18. they 19. they 20. It
21. they 22. they 23. They 24. it 25. they 26. it 27. they
28. they 29. they 30. they. Those in the objective case
are: 1. valley 2. brothers 3. Schwartz 4. Hans 5. Gluck
6. eyebrows 7. eyes 8. them 9. you 10 farming 11. Treas-
ure Valley 12. everything 13. that 14. eating 15. black-
birds 16. fruit 17. hedgehogs 18. cows 19. crickets 20.
eating 21. crumbs 22. kitchen 23. cicadas 24. summer
25. lime trees 26. servants 27. wages 28. them 29. them
30. doors 31. paying 32. them 33. farm 34. system 35.
farming 36. corn 37. them 38. it 39. value 40. heaps
41. gold 42. floors 43. penny 44. crust 45. charity 46.
mass 47. paying 48. tithes 49. word 50. temper 51. those
52. whom 53. dealings 54. nickname 55. Black Brothers.
Those in the possessive case are: 1. its 2. their 3. their
4. its 5. their

The whole of this little valley belonged to three brothers called Schwartz,¹ Hans, and Gluck. Schwartz and Hans, the two elder brothers, were very ugly men, with overhanging eyebrows and small dull eyes, which were always half shut² so that you couldn't see into *them* and always fancied they saw very far into *you*. They lived by farming the Treasure Valley, and very good farmers³ they were. They killed everything that did not pay for its eating. They shot the blackbirds, because they pecked the fruit; and killed the hedgehogs, lest they should suck the cows; they poisoned the crickets for eating the crumbs in the kitchen; and smothered the cicadas, which used to sing all summer in the lime trees.⁴ They worked their servants without any wages till they would not work any more, and then quarreled with them, and turned them out of doors without paying them. It would have been very odd if, with such

a farm and such a system of farming, they hadn't got very rich; and very rich^s they *did* get. They generally contrived to keep their corn by them till it was very dear, and then sell it for twice^s its value; they had heaps of gold lying about on their floors, yet^t it was never known that they had given a penny or a crust in charity; they never went to mass; they grumbled perpetually at paying tithes, and were, in a word, of so cruel and grinding a temper as^s to receive from all those with whom they had any dealings the nickname of the "Black Brothers."

1. These names are predicate nouns after *called* and mean the same as *brothers*, so of course they are in the same case as *brothers*. 2. *Shut* is here an adjective rather than part of the verb. 3. *Farmers* is a predicate complement meaning the same as *they*, though it precedes its verb *were*. 4. We may count *lime trees* as one noun though it consists of two words. 5. *Rich* is a predicate adjective modifying *they* and belongs after *did get*, though transposed to the beginning of the sentence for rhetorical emphasis. 6. We will call *twice* an adjective modifying *value*. 7. *Yet* may here be regarded as a conjunction. 8. We will call *as* a conjunction introducing an infinitive instead of a full clause.

CHAPTER IV

THE VERB AND ITS VARIOUS FORMS

25. The verb offers far more complications than any other part of speech. In the first place it often consists of more than one word. There are a number of verbs known as auxiliaries, most of which are also

used independently, and the combination of these with the principal verbs forms verb phrases such as *have done, is being written*, etc. It is not the easiest task in the world to identify the verb exactly in any given sentence.

26. The so-called conjugation of the verb, after the model of the Latin in which the personal pronouns were indicated by endings, will help us to get a picture of the development of the verb from its simplest forms to its more complex. The following is the conjugation of the present and past tenses of the indicative mode of the regular verb *walk*:

Present Tense

<i>Singular Number</i>	<i>Plural Number</i>
I walk (first person speaking)	We walk
You walk (second person spoken to)	You walk
He walks (third person spoken of)	They walk

Past Tense

I walked	We walked
You walked	You walked
He walked	They walked

27. First we notice the three persons—the person speaking (*I, we*), the person spoken to (*you*, or in the old form *thou*), and the person or thing spoken of (*he, she, it* in the singular, *they* in the plural, or any nouns or names of which the pronouns take the place). Number indicates whether there is one or more than one—singular or plural.

28. Tense means time, and the present tense shows

the verb indicating action going on at the time of the statement, while the past tense indicates action that took place at any time in the past.

29. In Latin there were different forms for all these, but in English we notice only two changes of form—the *s* in the third person singular of the present tense (*walks*), and the *ed* for all forms of the past tense. In regular verbs the past participle is the same form as the past tense (ending in *ed*), and the present participle ends in *ing* (*walking*). These are all the variations of form in the regular verbs in English, though in the irregular verbs there are other variations.

30. Future time is indicated by the auxiliary *shall* used regularly with the first person and *will* used regularly with the second and third persons. The future tense is conjugated as follows:

I shall walk
You will walk
He will walk

We shall walk
You will walk
They will walk

This is the regular combination. To express certain shades of meaning and emphasis, however, *will* is used with the first person and *shall* with the other persons.

31. The perfect tenses indicate action that continues up to a fixed time. This fixed time is usually indicated by some other word in the sentence, as in case of the present perfect by *already*, *yet*, *so far*:

I have talked to him already.

In the past perfect or pluperfect tense it would be indicated by other words, as—

I had talked to him before I saw you.

In the future perfect tense there is also the same fixing of a time, as—

I shall have talked to him before I see you again.

These complete the forms of the indicative mode, which is used in unconditional statements.

32. The potential mode is used in conditional statements, and is indicated by the auxiliaries *can* (past form *could*), *should*, *would* (which appear to be past forms of *shall* and *will* but really have a different kind of meaning). In such a sentence as "Would you have done it if I had requested it?" the subordinate conjunction *if* introducing the subordinate clause shows the conditional character and requires the potential form *would* in the main clause. *May*, *might*, and *must* are similar auxiliaries.

33. The imperative mode is used to express commands. As these are always addressed to the second person (spoken to), the subject of the imperative verb is not expressed, and we say "Walk away from here," "Speak to my father about it," "Go home at once," in which the subject *you* is always implied. A kind of imperative with other persons is expressed with the aid of the auxiliary *let*, as in "Let him speak to his father," "Let us see what we can do." In full this is "(You) let us (to) see."

The subjunctive mode has gone almost entirely out of use in English, and only one or two forms of irregular verbs survive, which we shall refer to later (see Sec. 62).

34. The so-called passive voice is formed by use of the irregular verb *to be*, as in "I am told," "He was killed," "He has been killed," in which the action

comes back on the subject itself instead of taking effect on some different object, as in "We accidentally killed that man," which in the passive form would be "That man was accidentally killed."

35. The progressive form of the verb is made by combination of the verb *to be* with the present participle in *ing*, as in "We are going to town," "They were coming home late at night," and expresses continuing action.

36. The auxiliary *to do* is regularly used in asking questions, as "Do you wish cream in your coffee?" and in negative sentences, as "I do not care for cream in my coffee." It is also used for emphasis, as in "I do wish you to come."

37. The colloquial contractions *don't*, *doesn't*, *isn't*, *aren't*, *hasn't* (of course not "hasent" through confusion with *haven't*), etc., are quite proper in conversation and informal writing, but are not generally used in formal writing or public speaking.

Irregular Verbs

38. A large part of the troublesome forms in English are to be found in the irregular verbs. The most irregular is *to be*, which is the oldest and most frequently used verb in the language. Its indicative mode is conjugated as follows:

<i>Present Tense</i>		<i>Past Tense</i>	
I am	we are	I was	we were
you are	you are	you were	you were
he is	they are	he was	they were

Future Tense

I shall be	we shall be
you will be	you will be
he will be	they will be

The perfect is *I have been* etc.

There are three of these forms that trouble some people. *You was*, of course, is never right: *you were* is required for the singular as well as the plural. The negative form *isn't* (is not), which is quite all right in conversation and letter writing though it would not be used in very formal speaking or writing, is sometimes changed to *ain't*, which is also used in questions with the first person because of the awkwardness of *am I not?* In Great Britain many educated people who dislike *ain't* as vulgar say *aren't I?* though of course *I are* would seem to them absurd. There just isn't in English any satisfactory form for questions in the first person and we must constantly use our ingenuity to avoid awkwardness.

39. *To be* is not only the most commonly used independent verb, but also one of the three chief auxiliaries, the others being *to have* and *to do*. There is little trouble with any form of *have*, though *hain't* for *hasn't* is sometimes heard among the wholly uneducated, but many educated people for some unknown reason fall into the habit of saying *he don't* for *he doesn't*, though in the full form they always say *he does not* and would never think of saying *he do not*.

40. Most of the other irregular verbs are troublesome because the past tense and the past participle are different in form and so are often confused, while

with regular verbs both forms simply add *ed*, and as they are alike they cannot be confused. The past tense is a complete and independent verb, while the past participle is merely part of a verbal form, required after the auxiliaries *to be* and *to have*, as "I spoke to you yesterday," and "I have spoken to you already."

There is a group of irregular verbs with the old English ending for the participle *en* or *n*, which include the following:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Participle</i>
speak	spoke	(have) spoken
break	broke	broken
swear	swore	sworn
take	took	taken
bear	bore	borne
steal	stole	stolen
eat	ate	eaten
bite	bit	bitten
bid	bade	bidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
write	wrote	written
rise	rose	risen
see	saw	seen
go	went	gone
know	knew	known
draw	drew	drawn
drive	drove	driven
fly	flew	flown
give	gave	given

Then there is another important group that changes the vowel:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Participle</i>
begin	began	begun
drink	drank	drunk
sing	sang	sung
spring	sprang	sprung
swim	swam	swum
ring	rang	rung

Formerly even in good usage there was considerable confusion between the form of the past tense and that of the past participle in these verbs, but now the forms above are pretty well settled. There is also a group in which there is no change for the past tense or the past participle, as

put	put	put
spit	spit	spit
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast

Other kinds of irregularity are as follows:

get	got	got
build	built	built
teach	taught	taught
catch	caught	caught
come	came	come
run	ran	run
shine	shone	shone
sit	sat	sat
set	set	set
lie	lay	lain
lay	laid	laid
read (ě)	read (ě)	read (ě)
lead	led	led

This outline of the verb and its forms will serve to give a sort of picture of what the verb is, and briefly define some of the terms used in connection with it, as preparation for studying some of the uses of the verb which are liable to be confusing.

CHAPTER V

PRACTICAL PROBLEMS IN THE USE OF VERBS.

41. **Singular and plural.** The single variation of form which the English verb has (apart from tense) is the *s* of the third person singular of the present indicative: *he, she, it walks, does, loves*, but *they, men, women walk, do, love*. There seems to be nothing puzzling about that, but when we check over various words and combinations of words that may be either singular or plural subjects we are liable to be puzzled and need to think carefully.

42. *John and Helen* would be followed by a plural form of the verb, because the two are taken together as the subject; but *John or Helen* would be followed by the singular form of the verb, because we are thinking of either one, but not of both at the same time. The same principle applies to "Neither John nor Helen is planning to go to college" (not "are planning," which is a very common error needing some attention), and "How *are* John and his brother?" (not "How is?")

43. *All of us* is evidently plural, but *every one of us*, which means nearly the same thing, is singular, because *every one of us* means all of us taken one at

a time. While *man and woman* are plural, *every man and woman* is singular because *every* indicates that we think of only one man or one woman at a time; hence the verb should be singular. The same is true of *everybody, anybody, somebody, and each of the men and women*. All of these normally require a singular verb since they all lay the emphasis on an individual. Likewise say, "Not one of our friends *was* there," and "She is one of those who *are* easily overlooked."

44. In the past some critics have contended that *none* is always singular, since it is evidently derived by a contraction of *no one*, but the best writers treat *none* as either singular or plural according as the writer is thinking of the last person or the last group of persons. "None of the men remain in the room" would be said quickly and without special thought to mean that the group of men that was in the room is entirely gone. To say "None of the guests remains" would lay special emphasis on the thought that not a single one remains. So some grammarians have contended that *a number of men* is always singular, because there is only one *number*. But usage and instinct make us say "A number of us are going to town," just as we should say "a few of us," and regard *a number* as singular only when we mean a certain fixed number, as in "A certain number of employees has been selected for promotion."

45. Another source of difficulty lies in the so-called collective nouns such as *people, government, firm, company, army, multitude*, etc. Of course *a people*, meaning a nation or a race, would be treated as a singular subject, but such expressions as "People

say," "Most people believe" are naturally treated as plural. In speaking of the government of the United States we commonly use the singular verb with the word *government*, since in this country we think of the government acting as a unified corporation. In Great Britain, where the word *government* is used to designate the premier and his ministers who may be in power at the time, the word is almost invariably treated as a plural, since it calls to mind that small, fixed group of men who are thought of as individuals. So we might say in a general way "An army of people are swarming over the city square" (treating *army* as plural), but "General Pershing's army is encamped by the river" (since we think now of an organized military body that is a unit).

46. The form of the verb should show the nature of the subject. The correct form is the one that expresses our thought with logical exactness. If we use the singular form of the verb it should mean that we wish to refer to the subject as a single object, but if we use the plural form it should show that we are thinking of all the various single objects that go to make up the whole, and that we are thinking of each as acting alone.

47. There is also good authority in the use of great writers for treating two nouns united by *and* as a singular subject if together they convey a single idea, as in "Peace and tranquillity rests over the land," in which the form of the verb emphasizes the unity of idea in "peace and tranquillity."

A single sum of money such as *ten dollars* or *fifteen cents* is regarded as a singular subject, as in "Fifteen cents was too much to pay for that paper."

48. When a single noun, followed by other nouns introduced by *with*, is the subject of a verb, are we justified in regarding it as plural? By strict grammatical rule it is clearly singular and the grammatically minded insist on using a singular form of the verb in all such cases. At the same time many of our best writers have used a plural verb, and possibly they are right. In such cases we may suppose that *with* is more a conjunction than a preposition, and since words are frequently used as different parts of speech we need not be slaves to the idea that *with* is always and necessarily a preposition. We may ask if we should criticize such sentences as the following: "The king, with the lords and commons, form an excellent frame of government."

49. When a copulative verb like *to be* comes between two nouns (or pronouns) one of which is singular and the other plural, the first is naturally the subject and the one which follows the verb is the predicate complement. But an inversion of the natural order is sometimes allowable, and a writer may exercise his judgment in making the verb singular or plural. Examples: (regular) "His meat was locust and wild honey"; (reversed) "A cause of the low state of industry were the restraints put upon it"; "To fear no eye and to suspect no tongue is the great prerogative of innocence." It will be noticed that this inversion is somewhat rhetorical. It is natural to make the verb agree with the noun which comes first and stands nearest to it.

50. There are several irregular forms in English which may cause confusion. Such words as *politics*, *athletics*, *news*, *mathematics*, *physics*, though plural

in form, are essentially singular when used in their ordinary meaning. Of course there is no such thing as "a politic" or "a mathematic." Politics is an occupation or a subject for thought, and athletics is a general name for sport. On the other hand we may use *politics* in a different sense and think of it as plural, as when we say "His politics have changed repeatedly." *Athletics* may also be thought of as a comprehensive name for the different special sports, and then could be regarded as a plural. *Means* is either singular or plural, and we may say "this means" or "these means."

51. There are a few foreign plurals still retained in English, particularly the word *data*¹ (plural of *datum*, which is seldom used in the singular). We must say "These data are very enlightening." *Memoranda* is a Latin plural of *memorandum*, but the English plural *memorandums* is coming into general use. *Strata* is more common as a plural than *stratums*. *Alumni* (plural of *alumnus*) and *alumnæ* (plural of *alumna*, the feminine of *alumnus*) are universally used. The Latin plural *formulæ* is, however, giving way to the English plural *formulas*. *Phenomena* is the plural of *phenomenon*, and *analysis*, *parenthesis*, *crisis*, *basis*, and *oasis* have as their plurals *analyses*, *parentheses*, *crises*, *bases*, and *oases*, while *series* is the same in the plural as in the singular. The common English words *sheep*, *deer*, and *trout* are the same in the singular and in the plural, and we may speak of "a sheep" or "a hundred sheep."

¹ The plural aspect of *data* has been so nearly lost in English that some writers think the word should be treated as singular, just as *opera* is (Latin plural of *opus*).

Son-in-law, daughter-in-law, etc. form their plural by adding *s* to the first or main element (*sons-in-law, etc.*); but *handful, cupful, etc.* take the plural *s* at the end of the word (*handfuls, cupfuls*).

52. When two nouns or pronouns connected by *or* form the subject of a verb, it agrees with the nearest—that is, the second or last, as in “He or I am the man,” “He or we are going to have that money.” Of course this is also a difference of person, and as combination subjects of this kind sound awkward, the wiser plan is to avoid them and express the idea in another way, as “Either he is going to have that money, or we are.”

53. **Past Tense and Past Participle.** Confusion between the past tense and the past participle is not possible in the case of regular verbs ending in *ed* for both, but it does give rise to many errors in use of the irregular verbs. As we already know, the past tense stands complete by itself, while the past participle is used after the auxiliaries *to have* and *to be*.

We *forgot* to ask his opinion.

An hour later the incident was *forgotten*.

He *spoke* about it at supper time.

He has often *spoken* about it.

The child *broke* the dish.

The dish is *broken*.

The dish has been *broken*.

54. The difference between the past participle and the past tense has been more or less undetermined in the language almost up to the present time. As an alternative for the past tense *sang, sank, sprang,*

swam, etc. it was permissible until within a few years to use *sung*, *sunk*, *sprung*, and *swum*, but now these latter forms are obsolete. Since there is an adjective *drunk* meaning intoxicated and not directly connected with the verb, there has in the past been an impression that *drank* should be used as the past participle of *drink* as well as for the past tense. This was just the opposite of the tendency of similar verbs mentioned above and did away with the use of *drunk* as a past tense and seemed to be tending to displace *drunk* as a past participle, but that tendency has spent its force and usage now turns strongly against the use of *drank* as a past participle. A still older usage was in favor of *begun* as an alternative for the past tense *began*. Now the only accepted form of these verbs is—

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Participle</i>
drink	drank	(have) drunk
begin	began	begun

55. Just why, in the case of some particular verbs, there is confusion of the past tense and the past participle it is difficult to say. Perhaps the most vulgar and most obnoxious is saying "I seen him do it" for "I saw him do it." That is a childish error, which naturally is not corrected by the uneducated, but which is the first one to be corrected by schooling. Next to that is using the past participle *done* for the past tense *did* and saying "I *done* the work as you told me to," for "I *did* the work." Only the most uneducated would say "I have *did* the work," but "I *done* it" is common.

56. Another vulgar error often made by children and corrected by the most elementary school training is confusion in regard to *break*, *broke*, *broken*. Children have a vulgar word *bust* or *busted*. There is a verb *burst*, *burst*, *burst*, with the same form for present, past, and past participle, but the meaning is different from that commonly attached to *bust*, which is clearly that of *break*. When a man is on the verge of bankruptcy even well-educated people speak of him as "broke." The meaning of this word is not that of *broken*, but it is rather an adjective equivalent to *bankrupt*, except that the latter word suggests the formality of being in the bankruptcy court while *broke* suggests no more than being completely out of money. It may perhaps be regarded as a new word spelled the same as the past tense *broke* but really a different word and so not to be condemned as an ignorant confusion, as it would be when the child says "My bicycle is *broke*" or "Johnny has *went* home."

57. Fairly well educated persons will say "He *come* in just as I left" for "He *came* in," or "The mouse *run* into his hole before the cat could catch him" for "The mouse *ran* into his hole," or "When I went home mother *give* me something to eat" for "mother *gave*." Two of these verbs are peculiar in having the past participle the same as the present tense, and this perhaps helps the tendency to misuse the past participle for the past tense.

58. The best authorities favor *get*, *got*, *got* (not *gotten*). The use of *gotten* probably grew up because of confusion with *forget*, *forgot*, *forgotten*, which does not permit *forgot* to be used as a past

participle, but it has come to be so common among educated people that its use is no longer condemned.

59. The most serious confusion in the minds of educated people seems to be in regard to the use of different forms of the two pairs of similar verbs *sit* and *set*, *lie* and *lay*. Here a new difference enters in which we have not considered before. Some verbs require an object on which their action must take effect and are called *transitive* verbs, while others cannot take an object and are called *intransitive* verbs. When verbs are listed in the dictionary they are followed by the initials *v.t.* (transitive verb) or *v.i.* (intransitive verb), and attention must be given to these initials if one is to catch the exact meaning of the definitions. *Sit* is an intransitive verb and cannot take an object. We ourselves *sit* down, but we never *sit* anything down. Instead in such cases we must use the transitive verb *set* and say, for example, "I will *set* the lamp on the table." So we say that we go to *lie* down on the bed to rest, or a book *lies* on the table, but we *lay* the book on the table—we *lay* the child down to sleep. *Lay* is a transitive verb and requires an object—there must always be something to be laid; while *lie* is an intransitive verb and cannot have an object. Further difficulty arises in confusing the different forms of this pair of verbs. Let us look at them:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Participle</i>
lie	lay	(have) lain
lay	laid	laid

We notice that the past tense of *lie* is precisely the same as the present form of *lay*. Then we notice

that *lie* has the past participle *lain*, while the transitive verb *lay* has *laid* as its past participle.

Also *rise* is an intransitive verb (we “rise from our chair”) while *raise* is transitive (we “raise our hand”).

60. *Teach* and *learn* are also often confused. While we can *learn* a lesson, we cannot *learn* a dog a *trick*—we must *teach* him.

Shine, shone, (have) shone may be confused with *shown* (past participle of *show, showed, shown* or *showed*).

While *fly* has the past participle *flown, overflow* (an entirely different word) has as its past participle *overflowed* (never “overflown”). Say “The river has overflowed its banks” (not “has overflown its banks”).

61. **Use of the Perfect Tense.** The first step in composition is choosing the right word to agree with other words in the same sentence or adjoining sentences. The choice of tense in English is determined almost entirely by something of that sort. If I speak of a time definitely fixed in the past by such a word as *yesterday, last night, before I met you*, or the like, I use the past tense of the verb; but if I speak of something that is in the past but existing right up to the present I must use the perfect tense. Words which indicate that are *yet, already, so far*, or some expression that implies time up to the present, as *since meeting you*. We say “Harmon has already seen the local manager,” “I have not yet met Doctor Satterlee,” “Jenny has been working hard since you talked with her about her music” (not “Harmon already saw the local manager,” or “I didn’t yet meet Doctor Satterlee”). Getting the tense right is a

matter of constantly studying the exact nature of the time implied by other words in the sentence.

62. Subjunctive Mode. This mode has almost disappeared from English, except in a few idiomatic expressions like "as it were." The use of *were* instead of *was* with singular subjects is the only remaining sign of it, since the present form "if it be" is no longer used. We read in the Bible such expressions as "Reprove not a scorner lest he hate thee," and "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him," with "he slay" and "he hate" where the indicative mode would have "he slays" and "he hates," but modern English finds other methods of expressing these ideas.

There are two situations in which *were* is used with singular subjects, 1. wishes, and 2. supposed cases clearly contrary to fact. The subjunctive form indicates that the supposition is not even a possibility. Of course we do not wish for anything we may possibly have. If I say "I wish I were a bird," it is obvious that I am not a bird. If I say, "If John were here he would put out the fire," the word *were* says perfectly plainly that he is not here; but if I say, "If John was on the pier I know he took part in the dancing," the word *was* indicates that he may have been there, or he may not have been there. Notice that the supposed cases contrary to fact have *would* or the like in the main clause. Even in these supposed cases contrary to fact, modern usage wavers in the direction of *was*.

63. Sequence of Tenses. It is a well known rule of English that verbs in subordinate clauses must be governed by the tense of the principal verb. A

present tense requires a present tense or a future tense, a past tense requires a past tense, or the meaning must call for some distinct variation.

Examples: I *see* the new building every time I *go* to town.

He *said* he *would* call for me.

He *says* he *will* bring the book over tomorrow.

64. The present infinitive, however, expresses time which is the same as that of the verb to which it is attached, as in "He wanted to do it" (not "to have done it.") "He wishes to do it" and "He wished to do it" are alike in taking the present infinitive, since the present infinitive expresses time which is the same as the time of the principal verb, whether that is present or past or future. Likewise we say "We have done no more than it was our duty to do" not "to have done." On the contrary if we wish to show in the infinitive time clearly past with reference to the time of the principal verb we should use the perfect infinitive, as in "He is said to have fallen from the bridge" (the falling distinctly took place before the saying).

65. While past tenses naturally follow past tenses, if we wish to indicate a general truth (one that is just as potent now as it ever was in the past) we vary from the usual order and employ the present tense, as in "He said that water freezes at 32 degrees." The use of the present tense conveys a special meaning of being just as true now as at any time in the past.

We try to use the tense that indicates precisely

what we mean, or if the time does not matter the rule of sequence of tenses applies.

66. **Use of shall and will.** While in the simple statement of future time we normally use *shall* with *I* and *we*, and *will* with *you* and all subjects in the third person, there are important variations of meaning which just reverse this order.

When the idea of willingness is intended we use *will* after *I* and *we*, as in "I will (am willing to) do anything you wish," or "We will accept your offer" ("are willing to accept it"). Also when the speaker thinks of imposing his will on the person spoken to or spoken of, we use *shall* after *you* or any subject in the third person, as in "You shall not go out till I give you permission," or "He shall finish his lesson before he is dismissed." Again, when a question is asked we use the word we expect in the answer, as in "Shall you eat your lunch before you go out?" (answer expected of course "I shall eat my lunch"), or "Will you wait for me?" (answer expected "I will wait for you"). Likewise in indirect quotations we use the form that the speaker would have employed, as "He says he shall go directly to the train."

67. It is obviously ridiculous to say "I will be glad to see you" for "I shall be glad to see you," since there is no possibility of willing in connection with being glad. However, when there is no emphasis on the first person as such, or when we use the editorial *we* which means the editors of a paper, or similarly when *we* is a general word for everyone in sight, the best educated people use *will* and *shall* indiscriminately, with a strong tendency toward *will*, as in "We will be at home for lunch," "I will invite

him for dinner some day," "I will see what I can find," "We will certainly be there by one." *Will* is less emphatic than *shall*, and also less formal. Whenever we wish to suggest disregard of the person speaking, or as the speaker merge ourselves into the crowd, it is perfectly natural to use *will* in place of *shall* even when there is no emphasis on the idea of willing. We may say that the use of *will* is less personal than the use of *shall*.

68. *Should* and *would* follow the same principles.

We should say "I should be glad to see you" and "He said you would call me up." Besides its ordinary meaning as a kind of past tense of *shall*, *should* is often used in the sense of *ought*, as in "You should be dressed by six o'clock." In this sense there is no distinction between persons. Otherwise *should* and *would* are used in the same way as *shall* and *will*, including their use in questions where the form expected in the answer is employed, and in indirect quotations where we prefer the form used by the original speaker in the direct discourse. *Would* is, like *will*, less emphatic than *should*, and it is very commonly found with the editorial *we* and in similar situations. Modern authorities are much less inclined than those of former days to insist on the use of *shall* and *should*. The reason is, probably, that in this colloquial age we do not care so much for the slight formality which seems to attach to these words.

CHAPTER VI

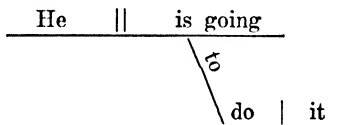
PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES

69. Many writers have ranked the participle as a separate part of speech. It is in reality a sort of hybrid, half verb and half adjective, and may become a noun. The infinitive is also a curious form of the verb, for it may often be used as a noun and is interchangeable to some extent with the present participle.

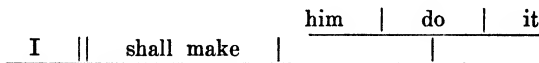
In such a sentence as "Steep and rocky mountains, *rising* into peaks always *covered* with snow, surrounded it on all sides," the participial phrases "rising into peaks" and "covered with snow" modify the nouns *mountains* and *peaks* respectively as adjectives, yet at the same time they give the effect of verbs. They are almost equivalent to subordinate clauses such as "which rise into peaks" and "which are covered with snow." In other situations the verb character is lost almost entirely and the participle becomes a pure adjective, as in "The *boxing* parson preached today," or "The *learned* doctor delivered the address." The present participle becomes a pure noun in such a sentence as "I like *riding*," or "*Riding* is healthful exercise," or "By *signing* your name here you will secure your rights." In the last sentence the verbal noun *signing* takes *name* as its object, as any verb might. These verbal nouns are called gerunds.

70. The chief office of the infinitive is simply to complete the meaning of other verbs, as when we say, "I like *to ride*"; "He is going *to do* it"; etc.

Here the assertion that is made in regard to the subject is not complete until the infinitive is added, and we may look on the first verb as more or less of an auxiliary. In fact, "He will do it" and "He is going to do it" are very much alike, and grammarians look on the *do* after *will* as an infinitive with the sign (*to*) omitted. However, in all cases in which the *to* is expressed we are accustomed to treat the infinitive as separate from the verb, and picture it in our diagrams as an ordinary prepositional phrase, thus:



71. But the infinitive may have a subject of its own, which will always be in the objective case. In such a relation the *to* is commonly omitted, as in "I shall make him do it," which may be diagramed thus:

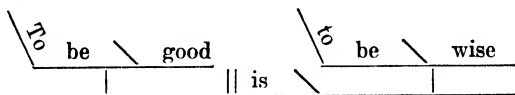


Here the whole phrase, "him do it," may be regarded as taking the place of a noun and forming the object of *shall make*, though it would not be altogether improper to place it below and connect it with *shall make* by a dotted line, after the manner of a subordinate clause.

In such cases as "To be good is to be wise," the *to*

PARTICIPLES AND INFINITIVES 87

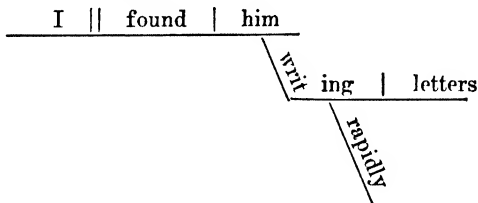
merely introduces the verbal phrases which serve as nouns, and we may picture the sentence as follows:



72. To explain such a sentence fully, however, with regard for both grammar and logic, we must reflect that a personal subject is implied, such as "anyone," "any person." The adjective *good* and the adjective *wise* really qualify this indefinite implied personality.

We see that while acting as a verbal noun, an infinitive may exercise all the qualities of a verb in taking predicate modifiers, either nouns or adjectives; and it may also be modified by adverbs.

73. The participles also may exercise the functions of verbs in the same way, as in the sentence, "I found him rapidly *writing* letters," which we may picture as follows:



74. We have already seen that the subject noun and the assertive verb are both indispensable to any

expression of thought. We may realize how far-reaching and important this principle is when we know that every verb, whatever its form, even the participle and the infinitive in so far as they exercise any of the functions of verbs, must have subjects of some kind, expressed or implied. If an infinitive is used to complete a verb, we look back through the auxiliary verb and find the real subject of the action or state expressed by the infinitive, in the subject of the sentence. Thus in the sentence, "I should like to do it," the logical subject of the act of doing is *I*. If we say, "I should like to have him do it," the subject of *have* is logically *I*, and of *do*, *him*.

75. The same is true of participles. Thus in the sentence "While sitting on my doorstep yesterday, I caught sight of a most beautiful butterfly," *sitting* is a participle evidently modifying the subject of the sentence, *I*. I do the sitting and I catch sight. If we change the form of the sentence so as to make it read, "While sitting on my doorstep yesterday, my notice was attracted to a most beautiful butterfly," we perceive that the real subject of the participle verb *sitting* is hard to find. It is perhaps implied in the possessive *my*, but it would be out of the question, grammatically, to attach *sitting* to *my*. If we should say "While sitting on the doorstep yesterday, a most beautiful butterfly attracted my notice," we would seem to imply that the butterfly was sitting, which is of course absurd. The sentences are manifestly imperfect from a logical point of view. This error in sentence-building is very common. Writers on grammar call it the *dangling participle*.

76. Even if the sentence is so constructed that it

is not difficult to account for all the members, still if the subject of the infinitive or participle is obscured, the sentence is imperfect. Thus if we say, "To relieve him of all responsibility, he was given a written statement by the members of the firm," *To relieve* is evidently a simple qualifier of the verb *was given*, but whatever act was performed in relieving was not by *he*, the subject of *was given*, but by *members*, which appears in a subordinate phrase. The sentence is logically imperfect. The same is true of the sentence, "By doing so the matter will be cleared up by him," which should be "By doing so he will clear the matter up."

77. In good writing, sentences will be so constructed that the participial phrase will be clearly connected with the nouns which are the subjects of their verb action. Usually this leads back to the subject of the main verb.

There is also what is called the *nominative absolute*. A participle may stand as an independent verb with a nominative or subjective case as its subject, though always in a dependent relation to some principal clause, as in "The wind blowing furiously, the boat was upset"; "He knowing that, I had no choice, but to act as I did." *The wind* is subject of the participle *blowing*, and *He* is the subject of the independent participle *knowing*. Both *he* and *wind* are spoken of as independent nominatives, though they are no more independent than any other subjects of verbs. It would be better to speak of the participles as independent in their use, for here they perform the offices of an ordinary verb even to having a separate subject in the nominative case. This use is not

avored by the best critics or writers, and evidently grew up because the instincts of the mind sought to supply a suitable subject for the participle when no implied subject was in sight. This is a bungling method of relieving the logical incompleteness of such sentences as we discussed in the preceding paragraph.

78. The subject of the participle may be implied in a possessive, as in the sentence, "By his doing that, the situation was relieved." Here the character of the participle as noun is emphasized by the presence of a possessive used as a simple adjective modifier, but we do not entirely lose the feeling of a verb and its subject.

79. The idiom of the English language prefers not to make the objective case the subject of a participle. The subject of an infinitive, as we have seen, is regularly in the objective case. In the past grammarians have condemned such sentences as "I could not prevent him doing it," or "There was no excuse for Harry making such a remark," which should be "I could not prevent his doing it" or "I could not prevent him from doing it," or "There was no excuse for Harry's making such a remark." There are situations, however, where the possessive is very awkward, as in "Would you object to Molly and me taking the baby a little while?" where "Molly's and my taking" would sound a little absurd. Jespersen, a Danish scholar who is recognized as perhaps our best authority on English grammar, has examined a large number of cases of this sort in the writings of well known authors past and present. He concludes that the participle is used in English in two ways, as a pure noun modified by a possessive and as a verb like an

infinitive with the objective case as its subject, and most linguists accept his conclusions so far as colloquial language is concerned, though some would not admit this construction into formal or literary writing. H. W. Fowler, of the Oxford Dictionary, strongly objects to it.

80. We have already given an example of an indefinite subject which is not stated but merely implied when an infinitive is used in a general sense. The subject of the participle may be implied in the same way when it is general or indefinite, as in "Speaking of the President, what did you think of his manifesto?" or "Granting all that, still how do you account for the strange circumstances?" *Granting* and *speaking* are evidently independent, with such subjects as *you*, *we*, *anyone* so clearly implied that no objection can be raised.

CHAPTER VII

OTHER PROBLEMS OF GRAMMAR

81. **Reference of Pronouns.** As a pronoun is a word used in place of a noun, it is very important that there should be no confusion as to precisely what noun it stands for, called its *antecedent*. There is little opportunity for doubt as to the antecedent of the first personal pronouns *I* and *we*, for this is always the person speaking, and the antecedent of the second personal pronoun *you* is the person spoken to. Pronouns of the third person, however, are used so numerously, and even in the same sentence refer so variously to different persons and objects, that

confusion is not only easy, but inevitable unless the greatest care is taken. Here is a sentence taken from Lane's translation of the *Arabian Nights*: "Aladdin was so frightened at what he saw that he would have run away; but as he was to be serviceable to the magician, *he* caught hold of *him*, scolded *him*, and gave *him* such a box on the ear that *he* knocked *him* down, and had like to have beat his teeth down his throat." The first three times *he* is used in this sentence it clearly refers to *Aladdin*, but the first italicized *he* refers to *magician*, a word just introduced in a subordinate phrase, while *him* in the same clause and succeeding ones refers to *Aladdin*. The result is exceedingly confusing, though it would not be so bad if *he* as the subject were consistently used to refer to *magician* and *him* to *Aladdin*. A little individual study is all that is needed to find ways of making such situations perfectly clear.

82. The English language lacks a singular pronoun of common gender, and when we need to employ a pronoun that refers to either sex we must use *he* and *his*, or if more emphasis is needed on the difference of sex, we must awkwardly say *his or her*. This applies to such combinations as "John or Helen." The plural *they* and *their* are of common gender, however, and on that account we feel the temptation to use these pronouns even when the antecedent is distinctly singular. For example, the correct form of expression is, "I will ask each boy and girl to write his name (or, *his or her name*) on a slip of paper"; "Everybody must carry his flag straight up"; "Somebody has forgotten his rubbers." In most of these cases careless speakers, feeling the advantage

of a pronoun of common gender, are tempted to use the pronoun *their* although the antecedent is singular.

83. While *each*, *every*, *somebody*, *anybody*, *everybody* lay emphasis on thinking of a number of persons one at a time, so that one of these words in the subject of a verb has the effect of making the subject distinctly singular, the feeling of plurality often prevails when it comes to pronouns farther along in the sentence. In such cases most modern authorities would permit the use of the plural pronoun, as in the sentence "Everybody was there, and they all agreed that the party was a complete success." We may think of the antecedent of *they* not as *everybody* but as *all those present*, clearly implied in the clause as a whole. In formal writing this shorthand form of expression would not meet approval, but in rapid speech and letter writing pronouns may refer to ideas implied in expressions of a different sort if these ideas are entirely clear. What is objectionable is vagueness, and there is no need to follow a rule of grammar unless it either helps to make the meaning clearer, or to avoid offending the esthetic instincts of educated people. A feeling for clear and acceptable expression is more valuable in language than a logic that is too hard and fast, and that is why educated people may seem to refer to a singular word like *everybody* by a plural pronoun such as *they*, or treat *none* or *a number* as plural.

84. **Relative Pronouns.** *Who* is used of persons and *which* of things, though *which of the two girls* shows another recognized use of *which*. Relative pronouns are a combination of pronoun and subordinate conjunction. *Who* may be thought of as equivalent

to *and he* or *she*, and *which* to *and it*, while *what* may be equivalent to *that which*. Each word may also be used as an interrogative pronoun and convey the different idea of making a selection. *Whose* is properly the possessive case of *who* and not of *which*, and there is objection to saying "Is that the book whose cover I liked so much?" instead of "Is that the book the cover of which I liked so much?" This is not a hard and fast rule, however, for though one would not say "You have a big maltese cat *who* lies by the fire" instead of "*which* lies by the fire," no one would feel offended by "the cat whose long hair is so glossy," "a country whose people are intelligent." Relative pronouns may also have person—the person or number of their antecedent, as in "I who love you am best able to judge you" (not "who loves"). *That* as a relative pronoun (not to be confused with the subordinate conjunction *that*) is less formal than *who* or *which*, and is useful in reducing the emphasis of these words, as in the sentence "The child that cries is not really old enough to come to school," or "The thing that I object to most is speaking so indistinctly that you cannot be understood," or (omitting *that* altogether) "The thing I object to most" (where *that* of course is clearly enough implied).

85. Difference between Predicate Adjectives and Adverbs. An adjective is a word that modifies or qualifies a noun, while an adverb modifies or qualifies a verb (or another adverb or an adjective). The usual ending for adverbs is *ly*, but any word expressing the time, place, or manner in which any verb action takes place must be construed as an adverb, as *soon*, *here*, *now*, etc. The problem arises in the case

of certain verbs which assert a quality of the subject (noun) and require a predicate adjective rather than an adverb describing the manner in which the verb acts. Thus, "John looks pale" (he is pale; certainly the looking is not done *palely* or in a pale manner); "The milk tastes sour" (it is sour to the taste); "The little girl feels bad about missing her lesson" (this is more or less idiomatic, but means that she has a bad feeling); "The wind blows cold" (in blowing it is cold); "The proposal looks good to me" (so far as its look is concerned it is good to me). It is correct to say "Drive slow" as well as "Drive slowly," and the meaning is "Be slow in driving." Some have called this the "flat adverb," relic of the early English adverbs in *ē* after such endings had been dropped from the language, but I prefer to think of it as a sort of idiomatic use of the adjective that modifies a noun in a roundabout way, or even perhaps a noun implied in the verb. The same principle applies in "Look out or you will say it wrong."

86. Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs. Short and common adjectives are ordinarily compared by adding *er* for the comparative degree and *est* for the superlative, but long and uncommon adjectives are less awkwardly compared by use of *more* and *most*, as *red*, *redder*, *reddest*, but *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*. There are a few irregular comparisons, as *good*, *better*, *best* and *bad*, *worse*, *worst*. The common rule is to use the comparative degree with two and the superlative degree with three or more, saying the *better of the two* and the *best of the three*, or the *worse of the two* and the *worst of the three*, but that is a refinement that is by no means

always observed. Adverbs are compared the same as adjectives, but we say *quickly*, *more quickly*, and *most quickly*, since *er* cannot be added to *ly*, but *badly*, *worse*, *worst* ("The car is running worse today than it did yesterday") and *well*, *better*, *best*. The adverb corresponding to *good* is *well*. It is an error to say "The car acts good" or "works good" though we may say it "looks good" or "feels good," but we say correctly it "acts well," it "works well." (Incidentally it may be remarked that in another sense *well* is an adjective meaning "in good health," and we may say properly either "I feel well today" or "I feel good today.")

Comment on Miscellaneous Expressions

87. It has often been said that in English two negatives make an affirmative (that is, cancel each other rather than intensify each other as they do in some languages), and children are carefully taught not to say "It doesn't do *no* good" (for "any good"). The same principle applies to *can't hardly*, since the true meaning is fully expressed by *can hardly*, as in "He can hardly walk at all."

88. *Had better* is a well recognized idiom, preferred by many to *would better*, as in "She had better look out for hostile criticism." Possibly this use of *had* with *better* has created some sort of confusion that leads to saying "He *hadn't ought* to do it" for "He ought not to do it," though few would say "He had ought to do it." The verb *ought* cannot be used in perfect tenses—indeed it has only one form, which appears to be present indicative, but the same in singular and plural.

89. There is an old rule of rhetoric that a sentence should not end with a preposition, and it seems to have lasted far beyond its period of usefulness. All that it ever meant was that a preposition is a weak word in general, and in rhetorical or oratorical speaking the effect of strength and dignity is lessened when a sentence ends with a preposition. In modern speaking and writing the easy, flowing, colloquial type of sentence is the one usually most desired, and this kind of sentence ends most naturally with a preposition. So today the rule has practically no meaning at all—to try to apply it is to formalize one's language and make it stilted. In English many verbs are really made up of a root and a preposition placed at the end, as *come over*, *look around*, *speak up*, *be sent for*. In other languages the preposition would be incorporated directly into the verb, usually at the beginning of the word instead of at the end. These English words that look like prepositions have no nouns to govern, so we cannot truly call them prepositions and are forced to regard them as adverbs, since in a way they modify the meaning of the verb. There is no essential difference, however, whether we say "We sent for the man" (in which *for* is clearly a preposition) and "The man was sent for" (in which *for* has no object). It would be more consistent to think of the verb in both cases as *sent for*. If we can forget entirely about the old rule and think only of the easy rhythm of our sentences, and the arrangement of words that will sound most natural and so most winning, we shall use language in the most effective way.

90. Some critics have told us that *not* should be

followed by *so* rather than *as* and we should say "James is not so tall as Dick" rather than "not as tall," though we would say "James is as tall as Dick." In such direct comparisons *as* seems the better word, though we should say "That is not so good." The expression "*try and* do it" as a substitute for "*try to* do it" is now accepted as an English idiom. Usage appears to have adopted *nice* as passably good colloquial language in "a nice time," or "nice people"; such intensives as *terribly* in "It was terribly hard work"; *guess* as equivalent to *think* in "I guess it will be all right" if the meaning is "I am inclined to think"; *got* in various colloquial uses such as "got home in time for supper," "got through with the work by six," "I've really got to go," "I've got my opinion"; *proven* as a substitute for *proved* if that supposedly old Scotch legal term as used in "not proven" is preferred for any definite reason; but of course colloquial use does not justify use in careful writing or speaking. It sounds sloppy even in informal talk to say "between three or four persons," "either of three or four," "We laughed at each other" instead of "at one another," since *between*, *either*, and *each other* all seem to imply a relation between two only. Teachers have drilled pupils on "May I go out?" instead of "Can I go out?" when asking permission to leave the room, and use of *may* does give one's language more distinction, though the point has been overemphasized, for educated people everywhere say "Can I take this book?"

Farther should be used of distance, while *further* is used in the sense of additional, as in "furthermore." While *further* is often used in place of

farther, the reverse is not true—"farthermore" is never heard.

91. Next to the myth that no sentence should end with a preposition, perhaps the most widely disseminated and discussed is the myth that the infinitive should not be "split" by placing an adverb between the "to" and its verb. It is safe to say that the infinitive has been split by all good writers since the English language was invented, but good writers and speakers do not split an infinitive except when it is necessary to bring the emphasis precisely upon the infinitive verb, as in "He was determined to at least protect her good name." Logically *only* should be placed next to the word or phrase it modifies, but English has an idiomatic way of carrying its meaning over the verb, as in "He only lacked one point of winning the match," which is unconsciously natural and easy as compared with "He lacked only one point," which is precise and correct. It is a good thing to know that placing *only* in its logical position is one way of giving precision and exactness to one's language, but if one does not wish to call attention to that particular manner, that can be avoided by placing *only* in the illogical but idiomatic position before the verb. Such an expression as "He does his work as well or better than I" is merely shorthand for "as well as, or better than, I do mine," but when we say "In the hospital there was a curtain between each bed" (leaving out "and the next") we seem to be slovenly rather than brief.

92. Educated people strongly condemn *them boys* (for *those boys*), *real good*, *most anybody* (for *almost*); "The boy was *raised* on a farm" (for

"brought up on a farm" or reared); *different than* (for *different from*), *these kind of people* (for *this kind*); *"Where am I at?"* (for *"Where am I?"*); *"He won't leave me come in"* (for *"won't let me come in"*); *"That wa'n't what I meant"* (for *"That wasn't what I meant"*); *"He got it off of his mother"* or *"He jumped off of the bridge"* (for *"He got it from his mother"* or *"He jumped off the bridge"*); *"He is feeling some better"* (for *"He is feeling somewhat better"*).

CHAPTER VIII

ENGLISH IDIOM

93. The word *idiom* means that which is peculiar. The idiom of a language consists in those peculiarities of construction in sentences and phrases which distinguish it from other languages. By extension of meaning, we call any phrase an idiom when it does not seem fully to conform to the rules of grammar, though usage has established its rights and gained for it universal recognition.

Much of the beauty and force of a language lies in its idioms,—how much we may easily perceive when we open a poor translation. The translator who is not a master of his art does not succeed in finding the idioms in the language into which he is translating which correspond to the idioms in the language he is seeking to translate, and his literal rendering of the words fails to convey the fullness of the meaning intended in the original. So persons who have been studying a foreign language often unconsciously pick up usages which are not appro-

priate to English, and their "English style" is spoiled for the time being.

There are many peculiarities which may be considered under the heading of "idiom," however, which may be common to several languages. In this chapter we wish to consider some of these peculiar uses of words in English.

94. *Indirect object.* Sometimes after an active verb (or one which is capable of taking a direct object) we find two objects which are certainly in no way dependent upon, or equivalent to, each other. Thus if we say, "Give me the book," "book" is the direct object, but "me" appears to be an object, too. The relation is clear if we supply the preposition *to* and say, "Give (to) me the book." The omission of the preposition constitutes an idiom of the English language. In Latin this "indirect" object, as it is called, is distinguished by a separate case called the dative, with an ending peculiar to itself signifying *to* or *for*.

95. *Adverbial nouns.* Many nouns signifying time, place, etc., are used in an adverbial sense without prepositions. To all intents and purposes they are adverbs; yet they retain the powers of nouns. Examples: "I am going *home*"; "He arrived a *day* late," or "a *day* later"; "I walked a *mile* today"; "He offered Caesar the crown three *times*." The construction may usually be seen if we insert a preposition and other words and say, for example, "I am going (to my) home"; "He arrived late (by) a day"; "I walked (for, or over) a mile today"; "He offered Caesar the crown (to the number of) three times." It is not quite clear in this last sentence that our

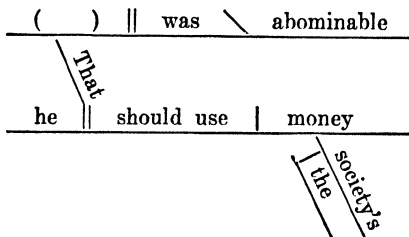
added words help the case at all. At any rate, no prepositions are implied. We must simply say that the nouns are used adverbially. The Latin has a special case for such constructions called the ablative.

96. The noun preceded by *of* is usually equivalent to the possessive, and in case of awkwardness we usually change the form. Thus when two possessives follow each other, we change one of them, and in place of "my friend's wife's sister," we say, "the sister of my friend's wife."

97. When two nouns are coupled, we may put the sign of the possessive after the last one only, to show that what is possessed belongs to them in common, as in "John and Eliza's fortune." If there were two fortunes, one belonging to John and the other to Eliza, we should indicate it by saying, "John's and Eliza's fortunes."

98. A prepositional phrase, a subordinate clause, or a participial phrase may take the place of a noun in almost any of its relations, especially as subject or object of a verb, and may have adjective modifiers in the same way that a noun has. Thus, "*For him to use the society's money* was dishonest" affords us a case in which an infinitive (*to use*) serving as a noun, the object of the preposition *for*, as a verb takes a subject in *him* and an object in *money*; and the whole unites to form the subject of the verb *was*, and is qualified by the adjective *dishonest*. The same sentence may be reconstructed a little so as to show a subordinate clause fulfilling the same offices as the prepositional phrase, thus: "That he should use the society's money was abominable." It is a little difficult to say to what the preposition *for* and

the conjunction *that* connect the words dependent upon them. To imagine an implied noun with a proper construction is not easy. We must be content with saying that these are "idioms." The following diagram pictures a sort of theory, however, in regard to one of the sentences:



99. Almost any adjective may be turned into a noun by placing the article *the* before it, as *the good*, *the great*, *the splendid*. We have seen that the present participle in *ing* is often used as a noun, though it retains powers of a verb. In the idiom of the English language there seem to be gradations of proportion between the verb quality and the noun quality. We may place *the* before the participle, and that seems to rob it of some of its verb powers. Thus we may say, "By *killing* his victim he lost all sympathy," or "By *the killing of* his victim he deprived himself of all sympathy." If we place *the* before the participle, we must follow it with a preposition to govern what was before a direct object.

100. A noun may be in apposition with a general idea contained in a variety of phrases and clauses,

as when we sum up a long statement by saying, "*a state* of things which we must admit to be wholly bad"; or "*a fact* no one will deny"; or "*a thing* which is obvious."

101. When we change such a sentence as "He offered them a pardon" into the passive form and say "They were offered a pardon," the noun "pardon" is left without a relationship to the verb which can be classed under any of the rules of grammar. In the first sentence it was the direct object of a verb; but a passive verb can have no direct object, and no preposition seems to be implied. Some grammarians condemn it as incorrect. If it is to be used, it should no doubt be classed as an idiom, and so left without explanation.

102. Sometimes one noun is made to modify another as an adjective. In such cases there is a strong tendency to run the two words into one, as *coalbin*, *policeman*, *rosebush*, etc., or else write them separately without any hyphens, as *apple tree*. Nouns followed by a present participle used as noun should be connected with the participle by a hyphen, as *story-writing*, *paper-making*, etc. But in *short story writing* no hyphen can be used, because *short* modifies *story*, not *story-writing*. Because of such difficulties many today omit the hyphens entirely.

103. Though it is an established rule that every pronoun must have its antecedent (expressed or implied), there is one case in which it would be very hard to find anything that could be regarded as antecedent. When we say "It rains," "It freezes," "It looks like snow," evidently *it* is as nearly devoid of meaning as a pronoun can be. It is merely a

dummy subject thrown in to fill up the gap so that we may use the verb. The same is perhaps even more true when we say, "It is I," "It is he," "It is they," etc., for here a neuter pronoun is made to be equivalent to a personal pronoun, and a singular pronoun to a plural. (The so-called "anticipative" adverb *there* is used to fill a grammatical gap in much the same way when we say, "There is to be music tonight." In this sentence the subject of "is" is "music," which the adverb "there" permits to come after the verb.)

104. When we say "Here is a book of John's," we seem to have a double possessive in "of John's," but if we understand that *books* is implied—"a book of John's (books)"—the construction is clear. But when pronouns are used in a similar way, some of them slightly change their forms, and we say, "This book is hers," "Here is a book of mine," "That is ours," etc. These pronouns are not essentially different, however, from the simpler forms *my*, *her*, *our*, etc. The changed form enables us to avoid giving the idea that a noun is to follow. It is a universal law of language that, so far as possible, the mind should be relieved of doubt as we pass from word to word.

105. Though the "antecedent" of a pronoun may follow the pronoun instead of preceding it, the construction should always be avoided when that is possible. When the antecedent follows the pronoun, the reader or listener is kept in suspense till the explanation of the pronoun is forthcoming. This is sometimes a justifiable rhetorical device, as in this sentence: "There was therefore, *which* is all that we

assert, a course of life pursued by them, different from that which they before led"; also in "I, John, saw all these things."

106. As interjections are independent words, with a relation to the sentence before or after them which is rather rhetorical than grammatical, or with no relation at all, no difficulties attend their use. There is one curious fact to be noted, however, and that is that first personal pronouns associated with interjections are in the objective case, as "Ah me!" "Oh me!" while pronouns of the second person are in the nominative case, as "O thou, who dwellest," etc., "O ye hypocrites," and the like. We may suppose that the attitude of the speaker in using the first person in such cases is commonly such as to imply a preposition to govern the pronoun, as in "Alas for me." In the second person we have what in Latin and Greek constitutes a separate case, the vocative. It was usually nearly the same as the nominative or subjective. We have no peculiar form in English confined to address, and hence we may class such words with nominatives used independently. They are connected, or are identical, with some word in the accompanying sentence, but they are not in apposition, for the word with which we identify them may be in the objective case, while the nouns used in address are in effect subjective. Perhaps the best way to dispose of all such words is to class them with interjections, and make no special attempt to name their real relation to a sentence. We merely note that they have no meaning except in connection with a sentence, and so they do have a relation to that sentence even if we do not give it a name.

107. Every verb must have its subject, but it is not easy to find the subject of the verb in such idiomatic expressions as "as follows," "as appears," "may be," etc. Some maintain that *as* is a pronoun and the subject of the verb that follows, some that the subject varies and is implied from what goes before, so that we should sometimes have a plural verb "as follow"; but other grammarians maintain that the impersonal pronoun *it* is implied, so that even in connection with plurals we really have "as (it) follows," etc.

108. There is no word in the English language, perhaps, so peculiarly idiomatic in its use as *as*. We commonly regard it as an adverb or conjunction. In such phrases as "as soon as," etc., the first *as* is a simple adverb modifying *soon*, itself an adverb, and the second *as* is an adverb serving as a conjunction, as in the sentence "As soon as I see him, I will deliver your invitation." We may suppose that *soon* modifies *deliver*, the first *as* modifies *soon*, and the second *as* modifies the first *as* and also serves as a conjunction to introduce the subordinate clause.

Some have maintained, however, that *as* is always a relative pronoun. With the pronoun *such* it is obviously a sort of relative pronoun, as in the sentence, "Such as presume to advise others, should look well to their own conduct." But there are certainly many cases in which no amount of ingenuity could explain the word as a pronoun.

Certainly *as* is a conjunction in "Do as I do," and good usage does not approve of substituting *like*, which is a preposition. ("He is like his father," but not "He acts like his father does.")

109. *As regards* has been criticized in such a sentence as "As regards your suggestion, I hardly know what to say," but many have defended it as idiomatic colloquial use. *As though* for *as if* was in times past also criticized, since *though* seemed to make nonsense in such a sentence as "He acted as (he would act) though he thought he owned the place," when of course *if* in place of *though* would make sense. In the more idiomatic phrase "It would seem as though he ought to do it" we do not find any more sense if we change *though* to *if* and say "It would seem as (it would seem) if he ought to do it." So *as though* is now accepted as an English idiom.

110. The comparative and superlative degrees are not appropriate to such adjectives as *perfect*, *circular*, *complete*, etc., since they express an absolute, not a relative quality. What is *perfect* is *absolutely perfect*, and cannot be *more perfect*. Something may be *more nearly perfect*, however, *more nearly complete*, *more nearly circular*. By a sort of syncope, the *nearly* is often omitted, and while *more circular* can perhaps never be found in good writers, and *more perfect* seldom, *more complete* is very commonly used. The fact is, in common use these words do not have their strictly logical meaning.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

A sentence is like an arch. It must rest upon two solid foundations, the subject noun and the predicate verb. To be a good arch, every word must fit nicely into its particular niche. One word which does not fit perfectly may cause the whole arch to fall. We may even have arch upon arch in a structure complicated and beautiful, but each word, like each brick, must be of faultless material, and moreover must be so precisely adapted in form as to fill the space allotted to it without being anything but just what is required of it.

In such a comparison as this we find our two universal laws, the necessity for two bases—the subject and the predicate, and the requirement that every word be adjusted to a perfect relation with every other word without a break or flaw of any kind. These two requirements cover the entire subject.

In making a sentence we must take account of two things, the individual meanings of the words and the relationship which they are to bear to each other. The meanings are given us by usage. We must acquire them as we acquire bricks. But once possessed of an ample supply, we must exercise our mental ability in fitting them together, selecting just the right one for each little niche and turn. If we have the mind to understand, each problem may be solved as we go along. We may look at our niche and then hunt about till we find the right word to fill it. We

may try one, and if that does not serve, we may try another. Unless we are pretty nearly right, our arch will not stand at all; and if it is poorly put together and awkward, no doubt we shall realize it as we look it over, as well as anyone would.

In studying grammar it is first necessary that we understand a few general principles on which sentences are constructed; and then we should train our minds to logical analysis of word relationships. It is utterly impossible to foresee every difficulty and provide for it. We must have a mind capable of original solutions. We may be put on our guard against errors that seem natural to all human kind, errors which no doubt we shall commit ourselves; but we should never correct an error *because we are told that we ought*, but because we see that not to correct it will be fatal to our purpose of expressing our ideas. We may forget what we have been told; we may even lose faith in our authority; but if we can solve the problem for ourselves, as we solve the problem of the multiplication of 15 by 4, we always have it in our power to find out for ourselves even if we do forget what we have been told or otherwise have learned; and what we have logically demonstrated we will not doubt.

The author of this book, therefore, strongly recommends the study of grammar by original processes, not by authorities and rules. All that a rule can do is to aid the memory in regard to a certain peculiarity; and when the peculiarity is perfectly familiar, we do not need the rule or the definition, and may safely forget both. Not until we have reached the point at which we can go on just as well without

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remembering a single rule or definition, can we be said to have become "accomplished" writers.

REVIEW TEST ON CORRECT ENGLISH USAGE

Directions for taking the Test: Read through one entire paragraph at a time to get the meaning and decide what word is required in each blank space. The required word will usually be some form of one of the words in parenthesis, which must harmonize with the meaning of other words in the sentence. Instead of writing the words in the book, write them in a column on a separate sheet of paper, opposite the corresponding numbers. If no word is required in any space write "Nothing needed."

Section One

As I was going down the street I (see) ——(1)—— a squirrel in the road. When I came up he (run) ——(2)—— up a tree. He had a nut in his mouth, but when he began to run he had to l——(3)—— it go. He ——(4)——n't there now. I think he has (go, went) ——(5)—— into his hole. He must have been frightened by (them, those) ——(6)—— girls who were just behind me. I think it (do) ——(7)——n't do ——(8)—— good to try to tame a squirrel, for he always runs away when you get near to him.

I wonder if the pear you had for lunch was as sweet as mine. I noticed that you had (tear) ——(9)—— part of the skin off and had (eat) ——(10)—— half

of it before I began mine. If you hadn't had a pear I would ——(11)—— (give) ——(12)—— you part of mine, for I have always (know) ——(13)—— that you (were, was) ——(14)—— fond of pears. Last winter we had three bushels from one tree, but they were (freeze) ——(15)—— in that cold snap we had. My mother had a few in her bureau drawer, and sometimes I was able to get one ——(16)—— her.

I am sorry I can't go with you this afternoon, but my bicycle is b——(17)——. I have (write) ——(18)—— a letter to the manufacturers for a new handle, but it ——(19)——n't come yet. Th——(20)—— (is, are) ——(21)—— six boys in our cycle club. They all got (possessive pronoun) ——(22)—— wheels last Christmas. I thought I was going to have a wheel on the tree at Grandfather's. It wasn't there, but when I (come) ——(23)—— home I saw it standing in the hall with my name on it. My father had (take, took) ——(24)—— it up from the cellar while we were away. In the spring my oldest brother (learn, teach) ——(25)—— me to ride it.

Section Two

Do you know Minnie Jones? She has (begin) ——(26)—— again to tell tales about me. She hasn't yet (drive) ——(27)—— me to revenge, but she will if she keeps on (like, as) ——(28)—— she has been doing. They told me that just before I came into the office yesterday she had (drew) ——(29)—— my pic-

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ture on a sheet of paper. I could see it partly crumpled up and knew some girl had (do) ——(30)—— it.

If we're going to have a half holiday, why shouldn't (us, we) ——(31)—— girls go to the woods for a picnic? We might take our bathing suits and go into the water. I have already (swim) ——(32)—— across the pond and back. Jenny can swim very (in a good manner) ——(33)——, too. You remember seeing Helen and (she, her) ——(34)—— in the hundred-yards race last year, but of course Helen can swim much better than (she, her) ——(35)——. Helen and (she, her) ——(36)—— went to the swimming-meet in Chicago last spring, and it was (her, she) ——(37)—— who dared the champion to race her. The meet took place on Saturday, and Jenny wasn't (to, at) ——(38)—— the office the next Monday morning.

John isn't as tall as (I, me) ——(39)—— by half a head, but he can run faster. Is it t——(40)—— late to run a race before supper? Yes. The bell has already (ring) ——(41)——, but I haven't yet (drink) ——(42)—— up all my glass of soda water. Have you finished (you) ——(43)——? I had a headache when I came out, but my head feels (some) ——(44)—— better now. Hey! Don't be in such a hurry. Somebody has left (possessive pronoun) ——(45)—— briefcase on the steps here. Wait a minute! Either Fred or Harry has left (possessive pronoun) ——(46)—— sweater, too. (Who) ——(47)—— hat is this? See what I have found on the sidewalk—some (ladies) ——(48)—— handkerchiefs! Who could have (lie,

lay) ——(49)—— them there? How long do you suppose they have (lie, lay) ——(50)—— there?

Section Three

This morning there was a bird in our office. It had (fly) ——(51)—— right through the window. It lighted on the side of the tank where our goldfish are kept and took a drink. Then I saw it flapping around in the water. I thought it had fallen in and was going to be (drown) ——(52)——. For two or three minutes while we watched it not a word was (speak) ——(53)—— by anyone. Then the bird flew out of the tank, but I shut the window just in time to prevent (it) ——(54)—— flying away. Then it didn't seem to know where it was ——(55)——.

See what a fine ball Joe has ——(56)——! But fifty-nine cents (is, are) ——(57)—— too much to pay for it. It (ought had not) ——(58)—— to cost as much as that. It is quite different (to, from, than) ——(59)—— mine. But let's see which can hit it hardest, you or (I, me) ——(60)——.

Josie is sick. I have told her to (lay, lie) ——(61)—— down in the restroom. She could (not hardly) ——(62)—— walk across the hall. When I found her she was (sit, set) ——(63)——ting on the floor. She said she wished she (was, were) ——(64)—— at home. If she (was, were) ——(65)—— there she would go to bed at once. She has spells all the time. I don't know what will become of that (there) ——(66)—— girl. (Did, has) ——(67)—— the doctor come yet?

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See! you have filled this cup till it has (overflow) —(68)—. I certainly (will, shall) —(69)— be glad when Josie is better. Probably tomorrow she will be (all—right) —(70)— again.

Section Four

Copy the following, dividing it into sentences by inserting the necessary periods and capital letters:

When I was coming home from the party last night I saw a ghost I was just coming to the brook all of a sudden a big white thing came out of the woods, but I could see stars right through it it beckoned to me with its hand I was scared stiff and stopped then I turned around and ran home by the other road.

Key to Review Test on Correct English Usage

Section One. 1. saw 2. ran 3. let 4. isn't 5. gone 6. those 7. doesn't 8. any 9. torn 10. eaten 11. have 12. given 13. known 14. were 15. frozen 16. from 17. broken 18. written 19. hasn't 20. There 21. are 22. their 23. came 24. taken 25. taught.

Section Two. 26. begun 27. driven 28. as 29. drawn 30. done 31. we 32. swum 33. well 34. her 35. she 36. she 37. she 38. at 39. I 40. too 41. rung 42. drunk 43. yours 44. somewhat 45. his 46. his 47. Whose 48. ladies' 49. laid 50. lain.

Section Three. 51. flown 52. drowned 53. spoken 54. its 55. Nothing needed 56. Nothing needed 57. is 58. ought not 59. from 60. I 61. lie 62. hardly 63. sitting

64. were 65. were 66. Nothing needed 67. has 68. overflowed 69. shall 70. all right.

Section Four. When I was coming home from the party last night I saw a ghost. I was just coming to the brook. All of a sudden a big white thing came out of the woods, but I could see stars right through it. It beckoned to me with its hand. I was scared stiff and stopped. Then I turned around and ran home by the other road.

More than three errors on this test would indicate that a habit-forming practice course in English should be taken by the student.

APPENDIX

WHAT IS GOOD ENGLISH?

Arranged according to majorities of juries from data in "Current English Usage," by Sterling A. Leonard. Published by the National Council of Teachers of English, 211 West 68th St., Chicago.

The juries, totaling 222, were groups of authors, editors, business men, linguists, members of the National Council of Teachers of English, members of the Modern Language Association, and speech teachers.

Accepted by a Majority of all Juries as good formal or literary usage

1. He toils *to the end* that he may amass wealth.
All agree it is formal.

2. It *behooves* them to take action at once.
Not commonly used in Great Britain.

3. *Under these circumstances* I will concede the point.
Authors, editors, and business men consider it colloquial.

Accepted by a Majority of all Juries as Good Colloquial

4. I *had* rather go at once.

5. This is a man I used to know. (Relative omitted.)

6. You *had better* stop that foolishness.

7. He did *not* do as well as we expected.

8. We *got* home at three o'clock.

9. As regards the League, let me say . . .

10. This was the *reason why* he went home.

11. *None* of them *are* here.

12. I felt I could walk no *further*.

13. That will be *all right*, you may be sure.

14. I've absolutely *got* to go.

15. We can expect the commission *to at least* protect our interests.

Forty-nine judges considered this good literary usage, but none of the authors did.

16. There are some *nice* people here.

17. The members of that family often laughed at *each other*.

18. *Will* you be at the Browns' this evening?

19. This room is *awfully* cold.

20. *You* had to have property to vote, in the eighteenth century.

21. They invited my friends and *myself*.

Myself is slightly more apologetic than *me*.

22. What was the reason for *Bennett* making that disturbance?

Jespersen has given a large number of instances from recognized literature to show that the objective is an alternative form in English with the possessive, but only 24 judges classified it as good literary usage.

23. My *folks* sent me a check.

24. The banker *loaned* me \$200 at 6%.

"He loaned me his skates" is also considered good colloquial usage by the linguists and English teachers.

25. That clock must be *fixed*.

This is distinctly an American colloquial expression, not used in this sense in Great Britain.

26. My contention has been *proven* many times.

This seems to be an acceptable colloquial alternative for *proved* in addition to its use in the Scotch legal phrase "not proven."

27. *One* rarely likes to do as *he* is told.

The use of *he* in referring to *one* avoids such a stilted expression as "One rarely enjoys one's lunch when one is tired." Meredith uses it in "Evan Harrington."

28. He never works *evenings* or *Sundays*.

29. The Rock Island *depot* burned down last night.

The American use of *depot* for *station* seems to be passing, but apparently the authorities see nothing especially wrong with it.

30. I *guess* I'll go to lunch.

This is an American colloquialism that seems not to be objectionable to anyone.

31. He went *right* home and told his father.

32. I *can't seem* to get this problem right.

33. I was pretty *mad* about it.

The American use of *mad* for *angry* seems to be acceptable colloquially in this country.

Questioned Usages

Approved by more than half of the Juries

34. This book is valueless, that one has more to recommend it. (Comma splice.)

Only the English teachers by a majority of one reject this.

35. We *only* had one left.

Only the authors disapprove this by a majority of one.

36. Haven't you *got through* yet?

Only the business men reject this by a majority of 2.

37. That's a dangerous curve; you'd better go *slow*.

Only the business men vote against this by a majority of 2.

38. I will go *providing* you keep away.

This is rejected only by the authors by a majority of 5.

39. I *will probably* come in a little late.

The authors alone reject this by a majority of 5.

40. *Leave* me alone, or else get out.

Only the English Council members reject this, by a majority of 7. "Leave me go" is in quite a different category.

41. I have *got* my own opinion on that.

Only the business men reject this, by a majority of 7.

42. *Pikes Peak* is in Colorado.

Only the linguists reject this omission of the apostrophe, by a majority of 11.

43. I *can't help but* eat it.

Only the authors reject this, by a majority of 15.

44. There is a big *woods* behind the house.

Again, only the authors reject this, by a majority of 17.

45. They have *gotten* a new car this year.

This American survival of an old English form is rejected only by the authors by a majority of one and the business men by a majority of 4.

46. He *dove* off the pier.

Only the linguists reject this by a majority of one, and the authors by a majority of 8.

47. Drive *slow* down that hill.

Only the authors reject this by a majority of 6 and the business men by a majority of 4.

48. It was *good and cold* when I came in.

Only the authors reject this by a majority of 9 and the business men by a majority of 6.

49. My experience on the farm helped me *some*, of course.

This is rejected only by the linguists by a majority of 7 and the authors by a majority of 12.

50. He could write *as well* or *better* than I.

This condensation is disapproved by the authors by a majority of 9 and by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 10.

51. If I asked him, he would *likely* refuse.

This is rejected only by the authors by a majority of 8 and the editors by a majority of 13.

52. We will *try and* get it.

This is rejected by the authors by a majority of one, by the business men by a majority of 5, and by the speech teachers by a majority of 3.

53. I *expect* he knows his subject.

This is rejected by the authors by a majority of one, by the editors by a majority of 6, and by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 3.

54. *Everyone* was here, but they all went home early.

Rejected by the authors by a majority of one, by the editors by a majority of 4, and by the business men by a majority of 6.

55. There *was* a bed, a dresser, and two chairs in the room.

Rejected only by the English Council members by a majority of 3, by the editors by a majority of 4, and by the business men by a majority of 4.

56. Such *naïf* actions seem to me absurd.

This is merely a question whether the English word may be spelled with an *f* instead of *naïve*, the usual spelling. The linguists refuse this permission by a majority of 10, the editors by a majority of 2, and the business men by a majority of 2. The rest are willing.

57. John was *raised* by his aunt.

The linguists reject this by a majority of 7, the authors by a majority of 4, and the editors by a majority of 5.

58. *Who* are you looking for?

Only the authors by a majority of 4, the business men by a majority of 8, and the speech teachers by a majority of 5 reject this.

59. It is *me*.

In spite of the tremendous propaganda in favor of it, this is rejected by the authors by a majority of 6, by the editors by a majority of 6, and by the business men by a majority of 11.

60. The child was weak, *due to* improper feeding.

Said to be used a good deal in Great Britain by military writers. Rejected by the linguists by a majority of 12, by the authors by a majority of 6, and by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 18.

Condemned by more than half of the Juries

61. A treaty was concluded *between the four powers*.

Approved only by the linguists by a majority of 18, by the editors by a majority of one, and by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 9.

62. He is *kind of silly*, I think.

Approved only by the linguists by a majority of 7, by the English Council members by a majority of 9, and by the business men by a majority of 6.

63. That boy's mischievous behavior *aggravates* me.

Approved only by the English Council members by a majority of 9, the business men by a majority of 5, and by the speech teachers by a majority of one.

64. The British look at this differently *than* we do.

Approved only by the business men by a majority of 4, by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 10, and by the speech teachers by an even vote.

65. It's *real* cold today.

Approved only by English Council members by a majority of 6, business men by a majority of 12, and speech teachers by a majority of one.

66. *Can I be excused from this class?*

Approved only by the linguists by a majority of 19 and the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 4.

67. *Either of these three roads is good.*

Supported only by the linguists by a majority of 7 and the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 2.

68. Trollope's novels have already begun to *date*.

Supported only by the business men by an even vote and by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 2.

69. It seems to be *them*.

Supported only by the linguists by a majority of 4 and the speech teachers by a majority of 3.

70. Everybody bought *their* own ticket.

Supported only by the linguists by an even vote and the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of one.

71. *Most* anybody can do that.

Supported only by the business men by a majority of 4 and the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 3.

72. It is *liable* to snow tonight.

Supported only by the business men by an even vote and by the speech teachers by a majority of 7.

73. The *data* is often inaccurate.

Supported only by the business men by a majority of 8 and by the speech teachers by a majority of 9.

74. What are the chances of *them* being found out?
Supported only by the linguists by a majority of 7.

75. Of two disputants, the *warmest* is generally in the wrong.

Supported only by the linguists by a majority of 5.

76. The man was *very amused*.

This use of *very* without an intervening adverb *much* may often be found in British writing and formal speech, but is supported only by the members of the Modern Language Association by a majority of 13.

77. There is a row of beds with a curtain *between each bed*.

This condensed expression is supported only by the business men by a majority of 4.

78. The fire captain with his loyal men *were* cheered.

Though many writers on grammar have given support to this, only the speech teachers voted for it by a majority of 2, though 13 judges considered it a good literary expression. It cannot be said to be colloquial.

79. We don't often see sunsets *like* they have in the tropics.

Supported only by the speech teachers by an even vote.

80. She *sung* very well.

Supported only by members of the English Council by a majority of 18.

81. It is only a little *ways* farther.

Supported only by the speech teachers by a majority of 4. It is classified as dialectal.

Considered Illiterate by a majority of all Juries

82. They *eat* (et) dinner at twelve o'clock.

83. *Aren't* ('nt or rnt) I right?

A common use in Great Britain but not recognized in the United States.

84. Neither author nor publisher *are* subject to censorship.

This sentence is quoted from Galsworthy, but Americans are not as fond of the plural as the British are.

85. Don't get *these kind* of gloves.

86. I am older than *him*.

87. She leaped *off of* the moving car.

88. It looked *like* they meant business.

89. Do it *like* he tells you.

90. I haven't *hardly* any money.

91. Now just *where* are we at?

92. He *drunk* too much ice water.

93. He *begun* to make excuses.

94. That *ain't* so.

95. He looked at me and *says* . . .

96. I must go and *lay* down.

97. I want *for you to come* at once.

98. He won't *leave* me come in.

99. You *was* mistaken about that, John.

100. My cold *wa'n't* any better next day.

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